The English Language Revolution

An Investigation of the Status of English in Norway

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A Thesis Presented to
the Department of Literature, Area Studies and European Languages
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Master's Degree

UNIVERSITY OF OSLO

November 2010

2010

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http://www.duo.uio.no/

Print: Copycat, Oslo

Abstract

This thesis investigates the status of English in Norway. English is an emerging world language that is increasingly being used as a lingua franca. New technology provides opportunities for contact with English, both exposure and communication. I investigated the relationship of 107 Norwegian secondary school pupils with English through a questionnaire. I hypothesized that English is no longer a foreign language in Norway, and found that English is neither a typical foreign language nor a typical second language in Norway. The situation for a learner of English in Norway is not the same as for a learner in an English-speaking country, but English has a special status that distinguishes it from other foreign languages.

Acknowledgments

Now that I am at the finishing line of this work, I would like to express my gratitude to the people without whom my life, as well as my thesis, would not have been the same.

I would like to acknowledge the role that the University of Oslo has played in my life, all the possibilities it has presented me with, all the ways in which it has changed and shaped my life. One of these was the opportunity to go abroad, and I thank my two host universities for giving me new academic and social perspectives.

I am grateful to my supervisor Hildegunn Dirdal, for all her patience and good advice. Any and all faults are my own.

I thank my family, whose shoulders I stand on, and lean on.

My friends, for being examples to live up to, and for all the coffee. Especially the invaluable presence of Ragnhild Enstad in all things academic and otherwise. We did it!

My doctor K.H. If I had not gotten well I could not have finished this, let alone started.

And to Raúl, for your never-ending optimism and encouragement – thank you!

Table of Contents

Table of Figures

1. Introduction

1.1 Aim of the Thesis

The aim of this thesis is to explore whether there are indications of a shift in the status of the English language in Norway. The title "The English Language Revolution" was inspired by Crystal's (2004) *The Language Revolution*, which is presented in section 2.2.3. The term "The English Language Revolution" describes the emergence of English as a world language, as well as the rapid development of new technology that allows for communication and varied linguistic exposure. Based on these developments, I hypothesize that there is a shift in the status of English and that it can no longer be treated as a foreign language in Norway. It is closer to a second language. The classical view of the difference between foreign and second languages is that foreign languages are mainly learned in school without much exposure outside school. Second languages are usually the main language spoken in the society where the learner lives, and is mainly learned through natural exposure and use outside the classroom.

In order to test the hypothesis, I needed to go straight to the source, and investigate the relationship that young pupils in Norway have with English. I am interested in the relationship they feel they have, that is, their attitudes and opinions, as much as the more easily measurable relationship to English through, for instance, amount of exposure.

My project uses ideas from the emerging theoretical field of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), which, together with frameworks of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), is applied in research on young Norwegians to explore the status of English in their lives.

Most of the relevant research on young people's exposure and attitudes to English is from within the present decade. Much of the research I present is much more comprehensive than my own, and my goal has not been to replicate these studies. This would not have been possible within the time frame of the master's thesis. But there are aspects in our society that change so fast that sometimes new studies can add to former ones by investigating a part of what has been investigated before, and then take the investigation one step further, looking at developments that were not present five or ten years ago. One such development is represented here by the spread of English through new media and technology, and this is

where I hope my investigation can contribute new knowledge regarding the status of English in young Norwegians' lives.

1.2 Plan of the Thesis

This **introduction** has given a brief discussion of aims and the background for this thesis.

Chapter 2 presents the theoretical background for my project. I define the terms "Second Language Acquisition (SLA)", "Foreign Language Learning (FLL)", and "English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)". I also present relevant, contemporary research within these fields.

Most of this research on the status of English focuses on formal instruction. My thesis is about the status of English in Norway, and although my focus is not on formal instruction as such, but on the status of English among young people in Norway more generally, many findings from these studies are still relevant.

In **chapter 3**, I present my hypothesis and research questions. These are based on the definitions of Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Learning presented in chapter 2 and take into account the new role of the mass media and English as a Lingua Franca. The overarching **research question** of whether English is a foreign language in Norway is thus fleshed out into five more specific research questions.

In **chapter 4**, the methodology is presented. I have performed a questionnaire survey on 107 Norwegian secondary school pupils in the tenth grade. Questionnaires are a good way to discover tendencies, because they can elicit large amounts of data that are easily processed, compared and presented. There are also challenges and disadvantages to questionnaire research, and I present the ways in which I have decided to cope with these. I also present my sample and questionnaire design to enable replication studies.

My findings are presented in **chapter 5**. The first part of the chapter presents the findings and discusses how they relate to the questions asked in the questionnaire. The second part is a discussion of how the findings relate to my research questions and the theoretical background, and finally, if the tendencies I have found can prove or disprove my hypothesis.

Chapter 6 offers concluding remarks on what the study has shown about the hypothesis.

2. Background

This chapter is the exploration of the background and the current situation of the theoretical field(s) that this thesis is placed within, including reviews of relevant literature and contemporary research within these fields.

In order to establish the theoretical foundation for this thesis, I must draw on theories from different fields. I place this work at the interface between the more established field of second language acquisition/foreign language learning, and the emerging field of English as a world language/lingua franca.

This chapter then consists of three parts. Part 2.1 is a discussion of the terms "second language acquisition" and "foreign language learning". These terms must be defined if I am to be able to discuss whether English is more like a second or a foreign language in Norway.

The next part, 2.2, is a discussion of the changing situation of English. Here the term "English as a Lingua Franca" (ELF) is discussed and defined.

The third part, 2.3, is about the status of English in Norway, and presents relevant background as to how this status might be shifting. Section 2.3.2 presents research on the role English plays in young people's lives in European countries (including Norway). The findings are summarized in section 2.3.3. The remainder of this part of the chapter, starting at section 2.3.4, discusses the presence of English in Norway.

2.1 Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Learning

Much research on second language learning is done with the learner in a new country as a starting point. The "classic" *second* language learner is someone who moves to another country, and has a need to communicate in his new language on a daily basis. He or she might also attend language classes in the new country.

On the other hand, the "classic" *foreign* language learning situation is when a language is taught in a classroom, to learners who do not have any contact with this language outside the classroom.

It is thus possible, and common, to distinguish between two types of learning situations: second language acquisition and foreign language learning. However, in the literature both situations are often referred to by the umbrella term "second language acquisition" or "second language learning", see e.g. Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982), Cook (1991), Ellis (1997), and Berggren and Tenfjord (2007). There seems to be agreement that "second language learning is learning a new language in addition to the mother tongue or first language"[1] (Berggren and Tenfjord 2007: 15) and that "'second' in this context means the second, third, fourth, etc. learned language, i.e. all languages that are learned after the first language"[2] (Berggren and Tenfjord 2007:16). Ellis defines L2 (second language) acquisition as "the way in which people learn a language other than their mother tongue, inside or outside of a classroom, and 'Second Language Acquisition' (SLA) as the study of this" (Ellis 1997: 3).

It is perhaps unfortunate that "second language acquisition" is used on two different levels. Since my thesis is concerned with the distinction between the two types of learning, I will continue to use "second language" in opposition to "foreign language" and not as an umbrella term.

There is agreement that there are different contexts in which languages can be learned. Dulay, Burt, and Krashen distinguish between *foreign language contexts* and *host language environments* (1982: 11). They also distinguish between *conscious* and *subconscious* language development.

Berggren and Tenfjord say that if we are to distinguish between foreign and second languages, it will be a question of contexts, and that "the second language is in this case the language that is in common use on a daily basis in the environment where the learner is acquiring the language"[3] (2007:16).

So far, we have seen that different learning contexts, especially concerning whether or not the learner finds herself in a host language environment, is what defines her as a second or a foreign language learner.

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[1]My translation. "(Foreløpig og innledningsvis kan vi si at) andrespråkslæring er det å lære et nytt språk i tillegg til morsmålet eller førstespråket."
[2]My translation. ""Andre-" betyr i denne sammenhengen andre, tredje, fjerde, etc. lærte språk , dvs. alle språk som blir lært etter førstespråket."
[3]My translation. "Andrespråket er i dette tilfellet det språket som er i allmenn bruk som dagligspråk i miljøet hvor språkinnlæreren lærer språket"

In the next section, I will move on to two authors who attempt to create more detailed and comprehensive frameworks for the understanding of the difference between Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Learning, namely Stephen Krashen and Håkan Ringbom.

2.1.1 Acquisition and Learning: Knowledge and Control

Krashen's *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications* has been a very influential work on language acquisition ever since it first came out in 1985. Krashen's theory gives a comprehensive understanding of how languages are learned, and how they are not learned. Krashen further distinguishes between *acquisition* and *learning*.

Krashen's theory consists of five hypotheses, with the Input Hypothesis as its central part, functioning as kind of a superordinate hypothesis. The Input Hypothesis states that *humans acquire language only by receiving comprehensible input*. Comprehensible input means input that is just above the current linguistic level of the language learner.

Regarding the acquisition of language, *The Acquisition versus Learning Hypothesis* distinguishes between *acquisition*, the subconscious way to acquire language, and *learning*, the "conscious process that results in 'knowing about' language" (Krashen 1985:1).

The Natural Order Hypothesis then states that the grammatical structures of a language are acquired in a predictable order.

The conscious knowledge that the learner has about the language is used to varying degrees in order to control the production of output. This conscious knowledge is called the *monitor*, hence *The Monitor Hypothesis.* Overuse of the Monitor may lead to difficulties in producing output because there is too much focus on correctness.

The final hypothesis in concerned with the importance of the context in which learners both receive input and produce output. *The Affective Filter Hypothesis* describes a "'mental block' that prevents acquirers from fully utilizing the comprehensible input they receive for language acquisition" (Krashen 1985:3).This affective filter can be influenced by, e.g., stress or low self-confidence in the learner.

There is thus a distinction here between *learning* and *acquiring* language. Languages can be 'learned without being acquired', which means the learner has the meta-knowledge of

how the language works. They can also be ‘acquired without being learned’, which means that the learner can acquire language without conscious knowledge of the linguistic system.

According to this theory then, in school students are mostly *learning* languages. Conscious knowledge of linguistic systems is required.

Outside of school, language may be *acquired* in a more natural way. Using different media, people have the option of choosing “input” that fits with their interests and knowledge. In private life, language learners may therefore be more likely to be exposed to comprehensible input. They may also have a generally lower affective filter, because they are not in a situation where they are expected to perform, such as the case may be in a classroom. Acquisition can thus be furthered when comprehensible input is received, the affective filter is low, and the monitor is not so present as to disturb output.

In a similar vein as Krashen, Ringbom (1987) distinguishes between linguistic *knowledge* and *control*. Knowledge, then, would be what learning leads to, while control is what acquisition leads to.

Ringbom sums up the ambiguity of the usage of the terms second language acquisition and foreign language learning thus:

> In recent work on applied linguistics the term Second Language Acquisition (SLA) generally occurs more frequently than Foreign Language Learning (FLL). The term “second language acquisition” has been used in two different ways. One use denotes the process of learning another language without guidance from teaching or books, in an environment where the language is frequently spoken. The other use is a blanket term to cover not only second language acquisition proper but L2-learning in classroom situations as well (Ringbom (1987: 26).

Recognizing the confusion connected to the definition of these terms within applied linguistics, Ringbom offers the following definitions:

> In a second language acquisition context the language is spoken in the immediate environment of the learner, who has good opportunities to use the language for participation in natural communication situations. Second language acquisition may, or may not, be supplemented by classroom teaching.
>
> In a foreign language learning situation, on the other hand, the language is not spoken in the immediate environment of the learner, although mass media may provide opportunities for practising the receptive skills. There is little or no opportunity for the learner to use the language in natural communication situations (Ringbom 1987: 27).

Thus Ringbom also claims that input is important to language acquisition. Furthermore, the learner needs to have opportunity to use the language for communication.

Second language acquisition may be supplemented by formal instruction, but in a foreign language learning situation the formal instruction is the main source of contact with the language. The mass media may be a source of contact with the language in a foreign language learning situation, but only as a source of input, it does not offer opportunities for communication, and Ringbom sees communication as a necessity for acquisition.

These are the definitions I will work with throughout this thesis when talking about Second Language Acquisition (SLA) versus Foreign Language Learning (FLL).

2.2 The Changing Situation of English

Having described the general process of language learning and acquisition, in this section I move on to the language of interest here, namely English. The use of English in the world today makes the distinction of foreign and second language more complicated to apply to it. As I will describe below, English is becoming a global language that is being used in many different situations. This may alter its status in regions where it earlier has fit the definition of a foreign language and thus make it problematic to define the status of English, as will be discussed in section 2.2.1. In section 2.2.2, the ramifications for the development of the English language itself is presented, and the term English as a Lingua Franca is defined. Section 2.2.3 shows that terms such as "first", "second" or "foreign language speakers" may be problematic to apply in the case of a global lingua franca.

2.2.1 Three Circles of World Englishes

Braj B. Kachru is credited with the term "World Englishes", a term used mainly for institutionalized varieties of English. In his influential 1985 paper "Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the outer circle", Kachru calls the diffusion of English across cultures a "linguistic phenomenon of unprecedented dimensions in language spread, language contact, and language change" (1985: 11).

Kachru's aim is to explore this global diffusion of English, focusing on standardization of non-native varieties. In order to explain how this global diffusion looks, he draws up the map of the "three concentric circles of world Englishes". The three circles represent the three "types of spread, the patterns of acquisition and the functional domains in

which English is used" (1985: 12). The terms he coins for the three circles are "the inner circle", "the outer circle", and "the expanding circle". For our present purposes, the inner circle represents English as a Native Language (ENL), the outer circle English as a Second Language (ESL) and the expanding circle English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). The three circles also correspond to the three-pronged development of a global language described by Crystal in section 2.2.3.

In the outer circle then, English is a second language, often with some kind of official status, and there are historical reasons for this, mainly colonization (by inner circle variety speakers).

In the expanding circle, on the other hand, there has not necessarily been any such colonization, and English may not be an official language. Kachru explains that "understanding the function of English in this circle requires a recognition of the fact that English is an international language", and that "it is the users of this circle who actually further strengthen the claims of English as an international or universal language" (Kachru 1985: 13). This could be because English is becoming the language typically used by speakers not from the inner circle as "an additional language – often as an alternative language – in multilingual and multicultural contexts". Many need to use English for reasons of "modernization and technology" (Kachru 1985: 14).

Kachru also points out that the outer and expanding circle can not necessarily be "viewed as clearly demarcated from each other" – not every country or region fits neatly into the definitions he creates. Moreover, language policies may change over time: "What is an ESL region at one time may become an EFL region at another time or vice versa" (Kachru 1985: 14).

We may note that Kachru's definitions of first, second and foreign languages are slightly different from what was outlined above in section 2.1, as he focuses on regions rather than on speakers. Whether English is defined as a first, second or foreign language in a region depends on the status of the language.

Clearly, there are grey areas here, but Kachru's definitions are nonetheless clear: In the expanding circle (where Norway belongs), English is a foreign language. The usage in the expanding circle strengthens the status of English as an international language, but the varieties used are *norm-dependent*; they are not institutionalized varieties, and the linguistic behavior in this circle does not lead to change in linguistic norms.

The fact that the entire "English-using speech community" or "fellowship" (Kachru 1985: 15) is so diverse presents many challenges. In terms of applied linguistics we must consider that there are many ways in which to learn and to use English, and that this may also change rapidly. As for the ramifications for defining the changing status of English, Kachru describes the situation thus: "It is evident that linguists, language planners, and language teachers have never had to confront a question of these dimensions before, with so many theoretical, applied, and attitudinal differences" (Kachru 1985: 15).

2.2.2 English as a Lingua Franca

> There is already a challenger, one which has quietly appeared on the scene whilst many native speakers of English were looking the other way, celebrating the rising hegemony of their language. The new language which is rapidly ousting the language of Shakespeare as the world's lingua franca is English itself – English in its new global form (Graddol 2006: 11).

Studies of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) usually focus mainly on one of the two following aspects of ELF:

1. A variety of English that is increasingly chosen for communication between speakers who do not share a common native tongue, that is, ELF as a communicative tool and the contexts in which it is used.
2. A variety in its own right, with its special characteristics and idiosyncratic usage; the special features of ELF as opposed to other varieties.

Some studies have been conducted on the structural features of ELF; e.g. Seidlhofer, Breiteneder, and Pitzl (2006), Firth (1996), and Mauranen (2005).

Through using an actual ELF corpus[4], Mauranen(2005) has been able to compare academic metadiscourse in ELF and ENL (English as a native language). She says that the differences she found, although small, pointed towards ELF communication being "primarily oriented to meaning rather than form." (Mauranen 2005: 289). However, she also concludes that "ELF use is complex and sophisticated, and its differences from L1 English are neither simple nor obvious" (Mauranen 2005: 290).

I will not go further into these studies of ELF structure, as the second point about ELF as a variety of English will not be my focus here. For now, I am interested in the first

[4]ELFA (English as a Lingua Franca in Academic settings), University of Tampere: http://www.uta.fi/laitokset/kielet/engf/research/elfa/

point, contexts of usage, not internal structure. The two points are of course nevertheless intertwined, seeing as real usage builds structure.

Thus, moving on to studies that focus on the communication contexts of ELF; some, such as Firth (1996) define ELF as "a 'contact language' between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen *foreign* language of communication" (Firth 1996: 240). Although my definition in point 1 is based on Firth's, it differs from his with regards to the 'foreign language' aspect. I agree with Seidlhofer that there is no reason to exclude native speakers: "it has to be remembered that ELF interactions often also include interlocutors from the Inner and Outer Circles, and can indeed take place in these contexts" (Seidlhofer 2004: 211). (For definitions of the inner and outer circles, see section 2.2.1.)

ELF interactions can then take place between speakers from all the English-speaking circles. This means that defining English as a foreign language for all speakers who participate in ELF interactions is not straightforward. And are all speakers from the expanding circle necessarily foreign language speakers? Modiano (2009), who argues the case for mainland European English to be accepted as varieties of English rather than non-standard usage, in line with African and Asian institutionalized varieties, claims that "What distinguishes many foreign-language speech communities from second-language speech communities is the self-perception of utilizing the L2 as a foreign language and not as a second language." (Modiano 2009: 214). This means the attitude of the speaker towards the language can be an indication of whether it is more like a second or a foreign language for that speaker.

The study of English as a lingua franca is a new one, so new, in fact, that not even the name is clearly established. It is referred to as anything from "global English" and "EFL" (English as a Foreign Language), (e.g. Graddol 2006), or "EIL" (English as an International Language), which Modiano (2009) defines differently, namely as used for "international communication in multicultural international settings" (Modiano 2009: 209). Berns, de Bot, and Hasebrink (2007: 9) claim that English in Europe now functions as a "*language of wider communication* (LWC)", which is a term that normally describes second language situations. They see it as problematic, however, to define English in Europe either as a second or a foreign language, and therefore call it a lingua franca within a de facto multilingual community (Berns, de Bot, and Hasebrink 2007: 9). Like Jenkins (2009), I also prefer the

term ELF, which Jenkins defines in the following manner: a "specific communication context", in which "English [is] being used as a lingua franca, the common language of choice, among speakers who come from different linguacultural backgrounds" (Jenkins 2009: 200).

2.2.3 *The Language Revolution*: Crystal (2004)

Crystal's work more explicitly relates theories of language acquisition to the reality of the growth of English as a world language. He considers what happens to our notions of terms like "first", "second" and "foreign" language in a rapidly changing linguistic world, where English is fast becoming a lingua franca unlike any seen before.

First, how does a language achieve global status? "A language does not achieve a genuinely global status until it develops a special role that is recognized in every country" (Crystal 2004: 7). Crystal claims that, in addition to having a large speech community of native speakers, there are two ways in which this status can be achieved. The language can be made an official or semi-official language in a country, or it can be the prioritized foreign language to be taught in schools—the natural choice after the native language. "Over 100 countries treat English as just such a foreign language; and in most of these it is now recognized as the chief foreign language to be taught in schools" (2004: 8).

So how come English now seems on its way to just such a global status? According to Crystal, it must have to do with the power of its speakers, and he provides ten domains where this power has led to English being the dominant language (2004:11-21).

- *Politics* (The British Empire, the UN)
- *Economics* (Britain great industrial nation, international banking system)
- *The press* (US independent press, news agencies and monopolies in English)
- *Advertising* (Especially in the US, following mass production and competition)
- *Broadcasting* (English was the first radio language, and broadcast to many countries)
- *Motion pictures* (Hollywood, world wars in Europe slowed European filmmaking)
- *Popular music* (Most technical developments happened in the USA. Early recording companies all had English language origins)

- *International travel and safety* (English is the language of transportation, accommodation, and safety: 'Seaspeak', 'Emergencyspeak' and 'Airspeak')
- *Education* (Language of science and technology. Language of instruction in higher education in many countries.)
- *Communications* (The Internet began as an English-language medium. English is still dominant[5].)

We may note that all these domains are somehow international in nature, and therefore aid the further spread of English once it has been established as the dominant language in the field.

What does this mean? Crystal problematizes "set" notions such as "official language" as well as the distinction between first, second, and foreign language. He calls for more relativistic approaches towards language paradigms. One approach that he is positive to is the notion of the *language portfolio*: "a notion now used quite widely around Europe which focuses on the range of languages and competences which a person has available" (Crystal 2004: 103). This would take away the need to define the languages a person knows or is learning as "L1", "L2" etc, which can be complicated in a multilingual world. In this way, there could also be a more pragmatic attitude towards translation, especially when it leads to a lot of extra work because 'everything must be translated', which Crystal claims is becoming a reality in the European Union. He suggests that more time could be spent deciding when it is 'useful' to translate, rather than spending time translating everything when it might not be necessary (2004:97).

> This kind of reasoning scares people, because the brave new world it points towards is unfamiliar and untested. But it is the nature of revolutions to present people with the need for new paradigms. And currently we are experiencing a linguistic revolution in which old models are being replaced by new ones, and a transitional period which is inevitably one of great uncertainty. People are unclear about the role of a truly global lingua franca, because they have never seen one before. (Crystal 2004: 98).

We have seen that the power of the speakers of a language can lead to dominance of the language itself. But as the language is learned and spoken by an ever-increasing number of speakers, this would then mean that these language users too take part in this powerful

[5]"However, the number of non-English-language users on the Internet is growing all the time, and now exceeds the number of new English-speaking users." (Crystal 2004:21) This means that although English can still be said to be dominant, it no longer has a greater presence on the Internet than all other languages combined.

speech community. Crystal explains that it is not only the native speakers who control the development of a language, especially in a situation like the one in which English finds itself, with many more non-native than native speakers. Native speakers do not "own" the language. "Three out of four English speakers are now non-native. All these users have a share in the future of English. Language is an immensely democratizing institution" (Crystal 2004: 23). This could mean, for instance, that non-native innovations or "irregularities" may become part of the standard. Some, such as Graddol (2006), see "Global English" as somewhat of a threat to native speakers of English, seeing as they no longer control it while at the same time they have few or no incentives to learn other languages[6]. "Where the global importance of languages used to depend on the number and wealth of native speakers, now the number of people who use it as a second language is becoming a more significant factor" (Graddol 2006: 64).

The Language Revolution must be seen in connection with new technology, as we have already seen, and especially the Internet. David Crystal has devoted a whole book to the subject of language and the Internet[7], as well as a third of *The Language Revolution*, claiming that the revolution is made up of three parts: English as a global language, rapid loss of other languages, and the rise of Internet technology.

The Internet represents a linguistic revolution because it provides us with "a further alternative to the mediums through which human communication can take place." (2004: 64). This new communication even creates a new kind of language that Crystal calls 'Netspeak', and claims is neither exactly like writing, nor like speech.

The Internet gives room to all languages, and is no longer an English medium only. "In the jargon of the Internet, there needs to be lots of good 'content' in the local languages out there, and until there is, people will stay using the languages that have managed to accumulate content – English, in particular" (2004: 90). This was written in 2004, and I shall explore in my study to what degree it applies to Norwegian-speaking youth in 2010, i.e., to what degree does their Internet use necessitate use of English.

[6] Many others recognize this development, and see it solely as the demise of "real" English. See i.e. Weingarten (2010).
[7] *Language and the Internet* (2001), where he "examined the radical effect on language of the arrival of Internet technology" (Crystal 2004: 5).

2.3 The Status of English in Norway

The focus of this thesis is on the status of English in Norway, and more specifically, in the lives of tenth graders in Norway. In the previous sections, I have demonstrated a general shift in the status of English, towards becoming a world language. This section further investigates the status of English as it is relevant to the young pupils who participated in my survey. I start with a presentation of the curricula for language studies in the Norwegian school system in section 2.3.1, to see what the official learning aims can indicate about the status of English. Then in section 2.3.2, four investigations of the presence of English in young pupils' lives are presented. A summary of the findings can be found in section 2.3.3.

The first study, by Bonnet (ed.) (2004), compares pupils' competence and attitudes across eight European countries, one of which is Norway. Then, Lambine (2005) investigates the role of English in upper secondary education in Norway. The third study I present is by Sundqvist (2009), who investigated the correlation between English outside of school and linguistic competence for Swedish pupils. The fourth study presented is by Berns, de Bot, and Hasebrink (2007), and focuses especially on the role of the media as a source of contact with English for young people in four European countries. These studies are thus not only about Norway. Further discussion of different aspects of the role of English specifically in Norway follows in sections 2.3.4, 2.3.5, and 2.3.6, before I develop my research questions in chapter 3.

First, an introduction to the role of English in Norway through the curricula for language studies.

2.3.1 Language Curricula for Secondary Education: 1997/2006

The curricula that describe what the tenth-graders that participated in my study have been learning in school, as well as what they will continue to learn if they go on to upper secondary education, are all available online, both in their Norwegian and English versions[8].

[8] http://www.utdanningsdirektoratet.no/Artikler/_Lareplaner/_english/Common-core-subjects-in-primary-and-secondary-education/ The curricula referred to here are for "common core subjects", that is, subjects that are taught all the way from primary school throughout upper secondary education. This includes a curriculum that only concerns upper secondary education. 10th grade is the last year of lower secondary education.

We may immediately note an important distinction in that English has its own curriculum; it is not included in the subject curriculum for foreign languages.

In the curriculum for upper secondary education from 1996, English is clearly excluded from the curriculum for foreign languages: "A knowledge of foreign languages besides English is a major advantage when facing the challenges of an increasingly international society" (Curriculum for Upper Secondary Education: Second and Third Foreign Language: 1). The curriculum gives examples of foreign languages pupils can study, such as Spanish, French, and German. Even though English is mentioned as a foreign language, it is not further mentioned with the other foreign languages, only in its own curriculum.

In the curriculum for English from 1994, we can read that "English is an international language that is used all over the world. In many countries English is the mother tongue or second language, and in a great many countries English is the first foreign language that is learned by everyone" (Curriculum for Upper Secondary Education: Specialized Subjects in General and Business Studies: English: 1). English is recognized as the "first foreign language" for the Norwegian pupils, and the next languages they learn will be their second, third etc. foreign languages.

In the new curriculum of 2006, English is still called a foreign language, namely "one of the most widespread foreign languages". In addition to being called an international language, it is now also "the language of communication between and amongst people with different mother tongues and different cultural backgrounds" (English – Programme subject in programme for specialization in general studies: 1).

It is also new in 2006 that the subject will focus on the history of the English-speaking countries, taking it "as a point of departure" in order to give an understanding of "the processes that account for the global spread of the English language and of Anglo-American culture" (English – Programme subject in programme for specialization in general studies: 1). Here then, the special status of English in that it is emerging as a world language is to a certain degree acknowledged.

The curricula for upper secondary education thus give some indications of the status of English. The pupils that participated in my study had not yet started their upper secondary education, so I have also looked at the parts of the curricula that cover lower secondary

education, which describe the basic skills and the competence (or knowledge) these pupils should have.

The basic skills that pupils need to develop in both English as well as other languages they may study are described in a similar way: they should be able to express themselves in writing and orally, be able to read, have skills in mathematics, and be able to use digital tools. The Main Subject Areas are also the same: *language learning*, *communication*, and *culture, society and literature.* However, there does seem to be some difference in what is expected from the pupils in English and in other foreign languages.

The difference is found in the Competence Aims. After year 10, what the pupils should be able to do with the languages they have learned is described within three main subject areas mentioned above: *language learning*, *communication*, and *culture, society and literature.*

In *language learning*, pupils should be able to "examine similarities and differences between the native language and the new language and exploit this in his or her language learning." This goes for both English and Foreign languages. However, in English, the pupil must be able to "use various situations, work methods and strategies to learn English" (Subject curriculum for English: 5). For foreign languages, the metalinguistic goals of foreign language learning seem to revolve more around the awareness that you are in fact learning another language, as no equivalent goal exists.

In *communication*, the difference is even more pronounced. In foreign languages, pupils should be able to "use the alphabet and characters of the language" as well as "find relevant information and understand the main content in written and oral adapted and authentic texts" (Subject curriculum for foreign languages: 3). In English, the pupils must "master vocabulary that covers a range of topics" and "understand spoken and written texts on a variety of topics" (Subject curriculum for English: 5). The skills required are clearly more advanced in English than in any of the foreign languages.

In the *culture, society and literature* area, the pupils should be able to, in a foreign language, "talk about" things such as their daily life, and about the language in question and the geographical area it belongs to. In English, they must be able to not only talk about, but also "discuss", "explain" and "describe" similar topics and more. They must also recognize regional accents of English and prepare their own texts related to culture, society or literature.

Clearly, English has a special status in schools in Norway. It is a foreign language, but it is the "first" foreign language with its own curriculum. It is increasingly being recognized as an international contact language. Norwegian students are expected to achieve higher competence in English than in any other language.

2.3.2 Previous Research

> Informal talks with students have revealed for instance that the manners in which they learn the language and also their attitudes towards the subject have changed dramatically in recent years, and what seemed to be a key issue was the students' increased exposure to and use of English outside the classroom. Seemingly an English-speaking media revolution had taken place […] (Lambine 2005:4).

This section is a review of research on the presence of English in the lives of young pupils, as introduced in section 2.3. All the studies provide insight into the role of English and have different foci. My review is thus not comprehensive, because my main focus is on what is relevant to my own study, which is the presence of English as a global language, and the media as a source of contact with English. In section 2.3.3, I summarize the findings from the presented research and consider the ways in which my study can add to previous knowledge.

Bonnet (ed.) (2004) *The assessment of pupils' skills in English in eight European countries, 2002*

This project aimed to test the English competence of young pupils across Europe in order to help shape policies of foreign language teaching. It was commissioned by the European Network of Policy Makers for the Evaluation of Educational Systems. This network was set up by the EU, and is therefore concerned with Europeans' ability to speak other languages and thus concerned with furthering their opportunities for mobility and communication within the EU[9].

Eight countries participated: Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, The Netherlands, Norway, Spain, and Sweden. From each country, approximately 1500 pupils participated (except for Germany, which had only 500). The survey included a comprehensive

[9] Norway and Iceland have representatives in the Network although they were not EU member states at the time of the project. For more information, see the network's home page: http://www.reva-education.eu/?lang=fr&lang=en

performance test, a self-assessment "instrument", and a pupil questionnaire. The questionnaire was meant to map out the pupils' characteristics in order to allow the analysts to "explain differences between groups of pupils within and between countries" (Bonnet 2004: 16).

The questionnaire was based on the one used in Berns, de Bot , and Hasebrink (2007) (see below), and included questions about the following topics:

- English language contact through the media and interaction with personal contacts. This included interaction e.g. with parents or peers, and on holidays in foreign countries, as well as the use of radio, TV, magazines and the Internet.
- Attitudes towards the English language: attitudes towards the language itself, as well as its perceived usefulness and the motivation for learning it.
- Socio-economic background of pupils: parents' education, native languages and proficiency in English.

The Norwegian pupils did well on the performance test, having the highest or second to highest scores on all four scales (labeled oral comprehension, linguistic competence, reading comprehension, and written production). In general, there is a large gap "mainly between the low results obtained by the French and Spanish students" and the others[10]. The Norwegian, Finnish, and Swedish pupils are the ones who "demonstrate the best performance for each of the four scales" (Bonnet 2004: 72).

Leaving comparison behind in order to focus on our population of interest, I turn to the results of the questionnaire answered by the 1306 Norwegian tenth graders. The findings show that the participants "think they have learnt about half of what they know of English at school", and that "as much as 34% on average of their knowledge of English is learnt from the media" (Bonnet 2004: 146). The Norwegian pupils have a positive attitude towards English, and they are motivated to learn it. Their motivations are the following, "to communicate abroad, to understand English TV, films and song lyrics better, and to make better use of computers and the Internet" (Bonnet 2004: 146). The question of attitudes seems to correlate with skill in the way that the pupils who like English the best and sees it

[10] The data from Germany was not included in the analysis.

as most important to learn are also in general the ones with the highest overall scores on the performance test.

How is English learned from the media? In the international comparison of the results, Bonnet (2004: 86) says that "clearly the internet is an important source of contact generally and therefore also for contact with English". This presupposition that the Internet is a source of contact with English because it is a source of contact in general has not been analyzed further. It is therefore not clear what is meant by contact, whether it is exposure, or communication, or both.

In the national analysis, the Internet is mentioned as another source of *exposure*, together with e.g. radio and TV (2004: 146). In the Norwegian report, the phrasing *kontakt med engelsk*, "contact with English", is used to describe the use of all media from radio to CDs to computer use (Ibsen 2004: 44). The questionnaire asks for the opportunities the pupil has for "contact with the English language outside of school", and the frequency of this contact involving family and friends, different media, and traveling abroad. We may note that the Norwegian pupils score the highest on contact with English when travelling abroad. (Ibsen 2004: 44).

This study then provides us with some data on how much English Norwegian pupils know, where they have learned it, and why they want to learn it. Although as much as 34% of the English they know is learned from the media, this is not explored further, and seems to be considered a matter of exposure only, not of communication.

Lambine (2005) "*English just isn't a foreign language anymore." Central aspects of teaching and learning English in upper secondary education*

Lambine uses Bonnet's study as a starting point in her exploration of English as a school subject. Accordingly, her study focuses on how English is learned in school. However, in one of the questions in her questionnaire, as well as in six in-depth interviews, she focuses on how English is learned *outside* the classroom.

Lambine goes one step further than Bonnet by asking how the pupils feel that their skills or knowledge of English is *improved* through informal use. She asks them about the informal use of English through movies and TV, music, the Internet, chatting and other

computer use, going abroad, magazines, newspapers and books, and "other". Her conclusion after the interviews is that "on the one hand students do for instance increase their vocabulary and improve their language skills from the use of English-speaking media. On the other hand, however, they do not seem too conscious of the enormous learning potential the various English-speaking media represent" (Lambine 2005: 107-108).

It is noteworthy however that Lambine does not analyze the answers to the question on the questionnaire concerning "going abroad", nor to the one about "internet, chat and other computer use". Regarding going abroad, she says that "The answers to 19d were left out due to the fact that the students did not have much experience when it came to going abroad" (Lambine 2005: 69f). Nevertheless, another question in the questionnaire asks why it is important to learn English, and she does mention that "they found learning English most important for communicating when going abroad" (2005: 104). This was then seen as more important than learning it for computer use, work, living in an English-speaking country, reading, watching programs without subtitles, understanding song lyrics, or for studying English.

The answers to the question of whether surfing the Internet, chatting and other use of the computer could improve the pupils' English were also left out, because "[the answers] were extremely varied and comprehensive, to the extent that an additional chapter would have been necessary" (Lambine 2005: 69f).

Lambine concludes that English as a school subject may have to be defined differently because of the "new role" of English. "Certainly if English is not only firmly establishing itself as the world's lingua franca but is also moving in the direction of becoming our second language, this should have consequences regarding how we define English as a subject, and also in the question of what should be the subject's objectives"(2005: 112).

The title of her thesis is taken from one of the student interviews, and she comments that "perhaps the most interesting new knowledge to come out of this study was that students consider English to be more like a second mother tongue than a foreign language" (2005: 110).

Sundqvist (2009) *Extramural English Matters - Out-of-School English and Its Impact on Swedish Ninth Graders' Oral Proficiency and Vocabulary*

Sundqvist goes yet another step further in investigating *how* pupils' English is improved through informal use, for which she uses the term "Extramural English". Through the use of language diaries, questionnaires and speech and vocabulary tests, she tested the correlation between extramural English (EE) and oral proficiency (OP) as well as vocabulary (VOC). Her sample consisted of 80 ninth-graders, who would be the same age as tenth graders in Norway.

What she has noted from Bonnet (2004) is that "the countries which reported the highest amount of EE for their students (Norway and Sweden) also had the highest total [competence] scores" (Sundqvist 2009: 5). Quoting the report *Nationella utvärderingen av grundskolan 2003: Engelska* (Oscarson and Apelgren 2005), she says that "students who had above average final grades claimed that they learn as much English outside school as they do in school. In contrast, average and below average students claimed they learn most of their English in school" (2009: 4). However, grades and EE do not always clearly correlate. Sundqvist notes that although scores on the competence test correlate to amount of EE in the European Network's study, grades do not. "Students who report a great amount of EE do not automatically also have high grades in English" (Sundqvist 2009: 5).

Oral proficiency was not tested in the European Network's study. Sundqvist finds that "the total amount of time spent on EE correlated positively and significantly (p <.01) both with learners' level of OP and size of VOC". "The conclusion was that EE is an independent variable and a possible path to progress in English for any learner, regardless of his or her socioeconomic background". (Sundqvist 2009: i).

In her questionnaire and in the language diaries, Sundqvist found that the EE activities that the pupils spent the most time on were music, video games, TV, and films. The Internet is next on the list, but with significantly less time spent than on films or TV, and only followed by "other activities", as well as reading books, newspapers or magazines. This last category received very few tokens (2009: 117). Sundqvist comments that she is surprised to find that almost half the students in the sample reported not to surf the Internet in English. Compared to data on spare time activities, only 12% say they do not surf the

Internet in Swedish. This means that "a majority of the students spent time on the Internet regularly, but many surfed more on Swedish sites than on English ones" (Sundqvist 2009: 119). Sundqvist still assumes that there is necessarily some contact with English through using the Internet: "It should be mentioned that 'surfing the Internet' is an extremely broad EE activity which necessarily involves some amount of reading in English. In addition to reading, surfing the Internet may also entail activities such as listening to English and writing in English" (2009: 19). This "extremely broad activity" has not been narrowed down in the analysis, except for one question about online role-playing games in English, which eight students (10%) confirmed partaking in (Sundqvist 2009: 131). The Internet has also been left out of the discussion of media use based on questionnaire data, although there is one question (Question 15) in the questionnaire that asks about different kinds of computer use.

Sundqvist provides a comprehensive discussion of second language acquisition (ch. 2) and Extramural English (ch. 3). Like I do in my study, she problematizes the distinction between second and foreign language. Quoting Viberg, she says that "the distinction is difficult to maintain in the 2000s because in many countries, including Sweden, English is easily accessed outside the classroom even though English is not an official language" (Sundqvist 2009: 10), and "English was previously a foreign language in Sweden, but that is not the case anymore. English functions more like a second language" (Sundqvist 2009: 29). Sundqvist's solution is to use the umbrella term "second language learning/acquisition" for both, i.e., not distinguish between second language and foreign language or acquisition and learning (2009: 11). As shown in section 2.2, the special situation of English means it is not always clear how to define it.

Berns, de Bot, and Hasebrink (2007) *In the Presence of English: Media and European Youth*

This is a comprehensive study of the role or presence of English in the lives of European youth. The sample consisted of 2,248 pupils aged between 12 and 18 (mean age 15) from Belgium, France, Germany, and the Netherlands (Berns, de Bot, and Hasebrink 2007: 48).

The study is a cross-comparison of four factors: *Language proficiency*, *socio-economic background*, *attitudes*, and *forms of contact* with English. (For more on this

framework, see the European Network's study above. It was in the present study that the framework used by the European Network was developed.)

The forms of contact with English that have been taken into consideration in this study are the media, personal networks, and intercultural communication. The definitions used here are (basically the same, but) more clearly delineated than in Bonnet (2004) above: *Media* is divided into two groups; Media 1, which is Music, film, and TV; and Media 2, which is Radio, newspapers, and journals ("information"). *Personal networks* are defined as opportunities for contact with English within the pupils' own community, such as with family or friends. *Intercultural communication* is contact with English abroad, especially on holidays.

Regarding contact with English through the media, the study has found that "the media provide a substantial amount of content in English", however, the bulk of this is music, and "besides the specific case of music, popular mass media do not provide many opportunities for contact with English" (2007: 113).

The study found that young people develop different kinds of English proficiency in different language and media environments. Media use is selective, and it depends on the individual's needs and capacities how she comes into contact with English through it (2007: 114).

Thus, more contact with the media did not necessarily lead to more contact with English, with the exception of Internet use: "the use of computers is necessarily linked to contacts with English, whereas English contacts in other media are not a question of the medium, but, rather, the result of selective use of the medium" (2007: 92).

The assumption must have been made that computer use is Internet use, because in the questionnaire, only "the computer" is mentioned as a possible opportunity for contact with English. It is also called a piece of "technical equipment", i.e., not necessarily presented (to the pupils) as a means of communication. The Internet becomes part of the backdrop for the study, but is not an integral part of what is actually being studied. The Internet is seen as part of a new development although it is not analyzed separately from other media. "If we take the computer and the internet as new media, these new communication options lead to a substantial change in the presence of English. Next to music media, computers were the second most important media source of English" (2007: 113). The focus here is on exposure

to English rather than communication, and thus the difference between interactive media use and passive media use does not need to be emphasized.

Like Bonnet (2004) above, this study was also concerned with attitudes and motivation. The assumption is presented in the introduction that "motivation to learn another language is decisive in learning success", and that "attitudes toward the target language, its speakers, and the learning context may all play some part in explaining success or lack thereof in acquiring a particular language" (Berns, de Bot, and Hasebrink 2007: 10). Tthey found that language proficiency as measured in their own vocabulary test correlated to a certain degree with *likeability*, and the self-evaluation correlated strongly with attitudes (Berns, de Bot, and Hasebrink 2007: 85).

2.3.3 Summary of Previous Research

In order to use these studies as a starting point for my investigation of the role of English in Norway, I must consider their findings regarding how the status of English is changing, and, if applicable, what has already been found regarding Norwegian pupils. Bonnet (2004) found that the Norwegian pupils had high performance scores and also a high motivation to learn English. They also say they have learned on average 34% of the English they know from the media. In Bonnet (2004) there was one general question about contact with English outside of school. In my study, I want to explore this contact on a more detailed level and see if this contact is only a matter of exposure or also of communication.

Both in Bonnet (2004) and Berns, de Bot, and Hasebrink (2007), there seemed to be a correlation between the learners' attitudes towards English and their skills and self-evaluation. I want to investigate the learners' attitudes towards English because it might tell us something about the status of English in general, especially when compared to the learners' attitudes towards other foreign languages.

Lambine (2005) investigated how English could be improved through informal use, focusing on exposure to English. I wish to elaborate on this by investigating the opportunities for communication in English, especially through the Internet, which she does not include in her analysis.

Sundqvist (2009) found that informal use of English could improve pupils' skills. She mentions the Internet as a source for informal contact with English, and I wish to elaborate on this to see more specifically if, and how, the Internet is a source for contact.

Berns, de Bot, and Hasebrink (2007) also found that there is a shift in contact with English as the Internet provides a new source of contact with English. Like with contact in general, I shall also investigate further to which degree this contact can provide opportunities for communication as well as exposure.

This will be discussed further in the development of research questions in chapter 3. First I move on to the discussion of English within Norway, where the comparison with other foreign languages suggests that English has a special status in Norway.

2.3.4 The Status of English in Norway: Definitions and Teaching

The study by Berns, de Bot, and Hasebrink found that young people develop different kinds of English proficiency in different language and media environments. There was a clear difference between these environments in bigger and smaller language markets. English proficiency was generally higher in the Dutch-speaking regions, which are considered small language markets. The authors say that "the Dutch speaking regions – and, as other studies indicate, the Nordic countries as well – provide many more opportunities for contact with English than the French- or German-speaking regions" (2007: 115).

Modiano (2009), see section 2.2, also sees the Nordic countries and the Netherlands as regions where people are developing a high "intercultural communicative competence" through the use and knowledge of English. His work in Sweden has let him observe "ELT [English language teaching] initiatives to accommodate English in the new era" and led him to suggest that "many of the shifts in theory and practice which are taking place in the Nordic countries (and perhaps also Holland) will become observable in other parts of the European Union in the near future" (2009: 215).

In the study of language and media environments, the teaching element must also be present. We will see some examples of how views on ELT in Norway are developing.

First, I will show how Simensen (2005) argues for a differentiation between English and the other languages taught in Norwegian schools. This argument is taken even further in the report from the Council of Europe (2003) (see section 2.3.5), where it is suggested that

English rather be used as a medium of instruction when teaching other subjects instead of being taught as a foreign language. In section 2.3.6, we see that the call for a clear definition of English in Norway is not only made by those who are concerned with the future of English or with foreign languages in Norway, but also those who worry about the status of the Norwegian language in Norway.

Foreign Language Teaching in Norway: Simensen (1998/2005)

> Traditionally the teaching of other languages than Norwegian has been considered foreign language teaching in Norway. The situation is parallel in the other Nordic countries. Obviously there is a lot more informal influence on the language of our students today than before from, for example, English outside the classroom. All the same, English in Norway cannot be considered a *second* language, understood as the normal language of the society in which the students live, including the language of everyday communication, business, and government. And this is, of course, even less the case for languages such as French or German. However, during the last decades there has been a lot of research and development work on English and other languages as *second* languages (Simensen 1998:11).

In her 1998 book, Simensen discusses the situation of foreign language teaching, noting the special status that English is developing in Norway. She claims that English can not be understood as a second language because it is not a language of "everyday communication". Thus there is no clear distinction between English and the other languages she mentions.

In her 2005 article, "Yes, English is something we meet as children and it is no longer a foreign language"[11], inspired by her student (Lambine, see section 2.3.2), Simensen presents a different view. She argues that in Norwegian schools, English needs to be treated differently from the other foreign languages. This is mostly due to two factors: First, pupils start learning English much earlier than other languages, namely at six years old, and second, they have a great amount of informal contact with English. Simensen sees a significant increase in this contact in the last 10 to 20 years. Theories of learning through input such as Krashen's (see section 2.1.1) can be applicable to English learning, but not to the learning of other languages where there is little to no exposure outside of school (Simensen 2005: 59).

Thus, she concludes that English today is learned "to some degree as a second mother tongue […] but this is not the case at all for the other foreign languages in the Norwegian

[11] My translation. "Ja, engelsk er noe vi møter som barn og det er ikke lenger noe fremmedspråk"

school system"[12] (2005: 61). Her request to the government is that this must have consequences for classroom practice, in that English should be taught in one way, other languages in another. She is beginning to see evidence of such a shift, and mentions a strategic plan published by the Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research in 2005, which mentions that "the teaching of English is in many ways closer to first language teaching than foreign language teaching"[13] (2005: 61).

2.3.5 *Language Education Policy Profile*: Council of Europe (2003)

In cooperation with the Norwegian ministry of Education and Research, the Language Policy Division of the Council of Europe appointed an expert group to explain the situation of language education in Norway in 2003[14]. The council of Europe promotes plurilingualism, which the report finds already to exist in Norway. In order for it to develop further, especially through introducing a compulsory second foreign language in lower secondary school, a "strong framework and strong supporting conditions for language learning" are needed (Council of Europe 2003: 16).

Throughout the report, the group notes the presence or dominance of English compared to other languages. They say that, in general, "many Norwegians think of language learning only in terms of the mastery of English, which has a dominant position in reflections on language learning in civil society; English is seen as a necessary basic skill for communication" (Council of Europe 2003: 6).

The report also notes that English is dominant in education, and the fact that English is part of what is called *basic competence* "suggests that English has a special role in education not often allocated to a foreign language" (2003: 13). They go on to suggest that "describing English as a 'second language' is [a] way of referring to the phenomenon that English has a major role in Norwegian society" (2003: 16).

In their discussion of a framework for language education, they compare the status of English with the other foreign languages and say that English needs to be differentiated from other foreign languages, because in the competition between them, English is almost

[12] My translation. "(Slik situasjonen for engelskfaget er i dagens samfunn,) læres det i noen grad som morsmål nr. 2 […] men dette gjelder slett ikke de andre fremmedspråkene i det norske skolesystemet."
[13] My translation. "På mange måter ligger opplæringen i engelsk nærmere opplæringen i førstespråk enn opplæringen i fremmedspråk."
[14] The full report can be found here: http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Profile_Norway_EN.pdf

inevitably dominant (2003: 16). This can be a result of English having been a compulsory subject for a long time; because pupils start learning it when they are very young; and because of the presence of English outside the classroom, which gives learners the opportunity to "practice [their] knowledge (at least receptive competence)" (2003: 17).

A suggested future direction for "maximizing the existing potential" of plurilingualism in Norway is that English be combined with other subjects, as a medium of instruction[15]. Thus the "language class spot" would be open to other languages. English could also be used as a "springboard" for learning other languages (2003: 35).

The *language portfolio*, which was mentioned by Crystal (see section 2.2.3), is suggested as a "means for learners to record the different kinds and stages of language learning in which they are engaged […] and to see the coherence for them as plurilingual learners" (2003: 36). The Language Policy Division of the Council of Europe has developed its own "European Language Portfolio (ELP)"[16], which is meant to serve as a document for recording to which degree language learners know different languages (Council of Europe 2003: 45).

2.3.6 English: A Threat to Norwegian?

Up until now I have been presenting theories regarding the relationship between foreign and second languages. For politicians and language teaching policy makers there is also of course the issue of the status of the first language in relation to other languages to take into consideration. Many see the growth of English as an international language as a threat to smaller (national) languages such as Norwegian. Some, such as Graddol (see quote in section 2.2) even see it as a threat to "real" English, that is, native speaker English.

Johansson and Graedler, in their book about English in Norwegian language and society, write that "We are heading for a situation where English is used as a second language, next to the native language, with important functions within Norway. There is good reason to think about which forms the English influence takes, and what might be the

[15] "Also known as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) which is being strongly developed in several European countries" (2003: 35).
[16] For further information on the European Language Portfolio, see http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/portfolio/default.asp?l=e&m=/main_pages/welcome.html

biggest threat"[17] (Johansson and Graedler 2002: 273). Sylfest Lomheim, then leader of the Language Council of Norway, writes in his review of the book that the Norwegian language is already in danger of deterioration. There is already a functional division[18] between the two languages today, and this may become even more pronounced if we do not have a clear plan for the use of Norwegian in the next 50 or 100 years (Lomheim 2003).

Although it is not my focus here, the discussion of the role of the native language is also important when discussing what a second language is and what place it should have in a society. It is another reason why we need a definition of what a second language is and what we use it for – as well as what we do not need it for. I have mentioned Crystal's call for more relativistic approaches towards language paradigms (see section 2.2.3). He suggests that the concept of "official language", for example, could be replaced by "official for a particular purpose" so we could move on to "trying to work out what these purposes might be" (Crystal 2004: 99).

3. Hypothesis and Research Questions

English has a special status in Norway. Amongst the foreign languages taught in Norway, it has a dominant place. It might even be taking over some functions that have been held by Norwegian. To what extent can we say that English is a foreign language in Norway? The aim of this thesis is to explore the relationship that secondary school pupils have with English; that is, what kind of contact do they have and how much contact do they have. I want to find out how English in Norway is positioned in a rapidly changing linguistic reality. In the research presented in section 2.3.2, I found that both Sundqvist (2009) and Lambine (2005) suggested that English was more like a second than a foreign language in Sweden and Norway, respectively. Bonnet (2004) and Berns, de Bot, and Hasebrink (2007) found that exposure to English through the media influenced learning.

From this follows my overarching research question:

- *Is English a foreign language in Norway?*

[17] My translation. "Vi er på vei mot en situasjon hvor engelsk blir brukt som andrespråk, ved siden av morsmålet, med viktige funksjoner innenfor Norge. Det er all grunn til å tenke på hvilke former den engelske innflytelsen tar, og hva som kan være den største trusselen."
[18] My translation: "funksjonsoppdeling" (Lomheim 2003: 29)

Based on previous research, and the status of English, I hypothesize that English can no longer be clearly defined as a foreign language in Norway. It might be closer to a second language. I want to investigate what I think are two important reasons for this, namely the growth of new technology and English as a world language. I wish for my hypothesis to be a clearly defined statement that is *measurable* and *falsifiable* (see Rasinger 2008: 31), and so I state it thus:

- *English is no longer a foreign language for Norwegian secondary school pupils. This is mainly due to the emergence of new technology and (the status of) English as a world language.*

In this project, it will not be possible to measure the relationship every single Norwegian person, business, or organization has to the English language. My population is defined as 15–16-year old pupils who are finishing secondary school. My sample consists of 107 pupils who participate in the study anonymously and individually. This is further defined in section 4.2.

As we have seen in the previous chapter, the definition of a "foreign language" is not necessarily straightforward. In order to discuss whether English is a foreign language or not, I need to have it clearly defined. The definitions that I am using as my starting point were presented in section 2.1.1, and are repeated here:

> In a second language acquisition context the language is spoken in the immediate environment of the learner, who has good opportunities to use the language for participation in natural communication situations. Second language acquisition may, or may not, be supplemented by classroom teaching.
>
> In a foreign language learning situation, on the other hand, the language is not spoken in the immediate environment of the learner, although mass media may provide opportunities for practising the receptive skills. There is little or no opportunity for the learner to use the language in natural communication situations (Ringbom 1987: 27).

The first definition of a *second language acquisition context* is that the language is spoken in the immediate environment of the learner. Starting with these definitions, it might seem that English is a foreign language in Norway. Many pupils do not have English-speaking family or friends, although they may receive English exposure through the media. I take as a starting point the assumption that English is not a traditional second language to the Norwegian learners, because it is not "the normal language of the society in which the

students live", as defined by Simensen (1998:11), see section 2.3.4. Norwegian is the official language used in Norwegian society, and also the native language for the majority of Norwegian pupils.

However, moving on to the other aspects of the definitions, we see that in a second language acquisition context, the learner needs to have good opportunities to participate in natural communication situations. Therefore we need to address the question of whether these opportunities are present, and if the language is in fact used for communication. In a foreign language learning situation the media may provide opportunities for practicing receptive skills, but formal instruction is the main source of contact with the language. To what degree is this the case with English in Norway?

My research questions are thus:

- *Does the learner have good opportunities to use the language for participation in natural communication situations?*
- *Is language acquisition supplemented by classroom teaching, or is classroom teaching the main way of contact with the language?*
- *Do the mass media provide opportunities for practicing receptive skills?*

In order to say something about the place of English in Norway today, I also need research questions that address the two important issues of new technology/new media, and the special status of English.

What is different now, from when Ringbom wrote his definitions in 1987, is that the media is increasingly turning into a means of communication. On the Internet especially, ways in which to communicate with friends as well as strangers abound. We cannot assume that use of media always means input which the student passively receives. To today's 15-year-olds in Norway, social networks are at the very least a familiar concept, and we will soon see if they are also relevant in providing opportunities for communication.

In other words, my question is:

- *Do the mass media also give opportunities for practicing communicative skills, and are these being exploited by the participants?*

This will also be the biggest question category in the survey, seeing as it is where I take a step further from former studies, all the while keeping with Ringbom's definitions.

The second issue we must address is that of the special status of English. English is an "emergent world language" that is, we may say that English is on its way to becoming a global *lingua franca*. This special, although not necessarily official, status that English enjoys in many parts of the world may mean changed conceptions about what a second language or foreign language is, as we have seen in the previous chapter.

Looking at the reasons Crystal (2004) gives to why English is becoming a world language in section 2.2.3, there are several of these factors that may affect youth in Norway. Advertising, music, films, and TV, as well as international travel, are normal parts of life for many young people in Norway.

If a language that is not your native tongue is becoming ubiquitous in your daily life you will probably have some kind of opinion about it. These opinions, or attitudes, about a language may also influence how interested or likely you are to learn it well, as suggested by Berns, de Bot, and Hasebrink in section 2.3.2. Modiano (2009) suggested that speakers' self-perception of themselves as language users may affect the status of the language, as mentioned in section 2.2.2. In order to say something about whether English is closer to a second or a foreign language for the participants, it might be fruitful to not only ask about their opinion of English, but also compare this to their opinion of other languages that are truly foreign languages to them. Most tenth graders will have studied a foreign language all through lower secondary school, and thus have experience with different languages. Thus, I also ask:

- *What is the learner's attitude towards the language?*

My research questions are now established, and I move on to the methodology in chapter 4 before the results of my research are presented and the answers to the research questions discussed in chapter 5.

4. Methodology

This chapter is a presentation and discussion of the methodology for my project, with section 4.1 about questionnaire design and section 4.2 about the participants.

I will start with a brief discussion of methods and the process of choosing methods. When I first decided I wanted to do questionnaire research, it was because I wished to work with material from real people. That is, when I knew I wanted to look into the status of

English in Norway, I wanted to investigate the experiences of real language learners. My idea was that with a questionnaire I could have many answers to the questions I was interested in, which revolved around the participants' own experiences with the English language. I also assumed that the answers to the survey would be relatively easy to codify and thus make possible the investigation of tendencies across research questions.

Questionnaires such as the one I made mainly provide quantitative data. Depending on the project, it can be a good idea to supply this with for instance interviews that can provide more qualitative data and thus give a different kind of insight into the topic. There are a few reasons why I did not do this.

One is that there would be so much material to work on that it might not have been feasible to present (analyze) it all as a whole. It might simply have been too complex, of course within the scope of a master's thesis. Generally it does not have to be a problem to have more data than can be presented in the results of an investigation; it is having too little that can be a problem.

This is related to another issue that is quite crucial to many master's students; namely the issue of how to find enough participants for a study in a relatively short amount of time. I further explain this process in section 4.2.1, but in general it is a matter of importance to find a method that is efficient when it comes to time and effort spent.

Also, my goal was to explore whether there were indications of a shift in the status of English, and I knew I probably would not end up drawing any revolutionary conclusions. If that had been my goal I would have needed at least a much bigger sample as well as a more complex methodology, which again costs too much both time and money. However, I did have the opportunity to stand on the shoulders of those who have already performed much larger and more complex studies, and base my research on these. Therefore I wanted my data to be as easy to code as possible, so that it would be clear exactly what my small contribution to the field included.

However, as will be clear in the analysis, some questions turned out to be more difficult to analyze than others. As I wanted to look at pupils' own perceptions of their relationship with English, I included some rather open questions, for instance about perceived "easiness" of speaking English, as shown in Figure 5.3. Phrasings such as this one leaves the analysis quite open, and is thus opted out of in some types of research. Here the subjective opinion is of importance, and the questions thus included in the analysis.

I had to take into consideration the fact that I had not performed my own questionnaire research before. It was thus a learning process, in which conducting a pilot study was invaluable. In the pilot study, I found that although I did not want the data to be overly complex; I would need to accept a bit more complexity as the quite simple questions I asked in the pilot simply did not give me enough data to tell me as much as I wanted to know about the participants' relationship with English. Specifically, I saw that I needed to open up a bit more to participants' own explanations of their ideas with a few open questions. This will be discussed further below in section 4.1.1.

Being a novice researcher I did worry, however, that adding open questions and thus mixing up my essentially quantitative data with data that would be analyzed qualitatively might be a methodological problem. I have seen that it does not have to be if the questionnaire is constructed according to certain guidelines, which I will discuss in section 4.1.1. There exists a great deal of polemics on qualitative versus quantitative methods in academia, and whether we should even have to choose between them at all. Some say no to the latter, such as Howe (1988) and Åsberg (2001). Howe, a professed pragmatist, claims that "no incompatibility between quantitative and qualitative methods exists at either the level of practice or that of epistemology and […] there are thus no good reasons for educational researchers to fear forging ahead with 'what works'" (Howe 1988: 10). In other words, as answer to those who think it is overly pragmatic to combine the use of qualitative and quantitative methods simply because "it works", he claims that it does in fact work because the two are not only compatible, but in some senses "inseparable". This represents the idea that the method must fit with the object of research, not the other way around.

In the same vein, instead of thinking purely "qualitative/quantitative", it might be fruitful to start from the method itself, in this case the questionnaire, and look at what options it offers. Dörnyei (2003) gives concrete advice as to how a questionnaire can be structured, and how it is best to proceed to elicit the desired data in order to ensure maximum correctness of the quantitative data as well as rich qualitative data. This is possible to do with questionnaire research, and requires an optimal structure or questionnaire design.

Thus we can move on from the discussion of choosing methods and have a closer look at questionnaire design.

4.1 Questionnaire Design

Section 4.1.1 below presents possible advantages and disadvantages that must be taken into consideration when designing a questionnaire, and how these have been dealt with in my questionnaire. Then in section 4.2 the election and characteristics of the participants are presented.

4.1.1 Questionnaire as Research Method

Quoting Brown (2001), Dörnyei defines questionnaires as "any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers" (Dörnyei 2003: 6). Questionnaires are not tests; they do not measure knowledge or skills. What they can measure is information about the respondents, namely *factual* data, *behavioral* data, and *attitudinal* data (Dörnyei 2003: 8).

Constructing theoretical frameworks for questionnaire design in linguistics is a relatively new field. A concise, yet comprehensive overview, which I will use to explain my own questionnaire design, comes from Dörnyei (2003). Other helpful works for the novice researcher include Foddy (1994), Fowler (2002) (although these are not specifically about linguistics, but come from the more established fields of social studies/sociology), Butler (1985) and Rasinger (2008).

Questionnaires are a common way of collecting data in second language research. In general, questionnaires are a popular research method because they are *easy to construct*, they are *versatile*, and "uniquely capable of gathering a large amount of information quickly in a form that is readily processable" (Dörnyei 2003: 1).

Questionnaires are thus an efficient method when it comes to researcher time, researcher effort, and financial resources. Processing the data from questionnaires can also be quite time-effective (Dörnyei 2003: 9). The fact that they are so "efficient" means that it is possible to gather large amounts of data from them, which is important in quantitative research where it is crucial to have enough data to be able to see the tendencies the research was designed to discover.

For a project such as a master's thesis, efficiency is important. In order to be able to design the project, perform the study, process the data and analyze the findings within the

time frame of one year, the methodology must necessarily be concise. But it is also important to be aware of possible shortcomings or disadvantages to the method, and to design the study so as to avoid these shortcomings where possible. Therefore I will briefly go through the main disadvantages of questionnaire research as set up by Dörnyei (2003: 10-14), and mention to which degree these may be relevant to my study.

The first challenge of questionnaire research is its *inherent simplicity*. Questions must be plain and simple enough to be understood by all participants, therefore the answers will also be simple. It is thus a method "unsuitable for probing deeply into an issue" (Dörnyei 2003: 10). However, according to Dörnyei, this is particularly a problem when the participants are left completely to their own devices, when they will more easily give up if the questions are not understood. Considering that my questionnaire was designed to elicit factual data, behavioral data and attitudes from 15–16-year-olds, the questions did not need to be particularly complex. They needed to clearly ask the participants about their habits and opinions in a way that was clear to them, and would be clear to me when analyzing.

There is also the possibility of including open-ended questions for the purpose of eliciting richer data. According to Dörnyei, it may be fruitful to include open-ended questions because they can "offer graphic examples, illustrative quotes, and can lead us to identify issues not previously anticipated" (2003: 47). If we cannot predict all the possible answers to a multiple-choice question, or an elaboration of the answer given in a closed question is needed, an open question can be included. Open-ended questions are necessarily more difficult to code, and in the limited time setting of a questionnaire survey there is not time for too many open questions. Dörnyei suggests that the open-ended questions should contain a certain guidance, and that when using "short-answer questions" it should be possible to answer them with less than a paragraph (Dörnyei 2003: 50). The three short-answer questions in my questionnaire were mostly answered in one or two phrases.

As both their teacher and I were present while they completed the questionnaire, the participants were not left completely to their own devices. I imagine that the data collection would have been much more complicated if they had, for instance, been given the questionnaire to take home with them and complete it there. Inside the classroom, the participants had the opportunity to raise their hand and ask if something was not clear to them, and several participants did just this. They then seemed to understand the questions after just a short explanation. This would also have helped any participants with *literacy*

problems, which can be another disadvantage to questionnaire research. To make sure the questions were as easily understood as possible, they were presented in Norwegian. This is further explained in section 4.1.2 below.

Unreliable and unmotivated respondents can also be a challenge. Here, the setting of the classroom with the teacher present may have helped once again, as the respondents may have felt it was something their teacher would like them to do. The fact that I was also present seemed to interest and intrigue several participants greatly, which may also have served as a motivational factor for doing the questionnaire "well".

Because there is no direct contact between the researcher and the respondents in the actual asking of the questions, the researcher *does not have the opportunity to correct the respondents* if they misunderstand a question, forget to answer one, or answer what they think might be the best answer without knowing why. Again, the respondents had the opportunity of asking their teacher or me if anything was unclear, but this does not mean that they could not have misunderstood a question without asking. This is another reason why questions must be clear, concise and easy to answer.

Social desirability and *self-deception* may be challenges in questionnaire research: Participants may try to make themselves look "better" than they actually are, either because they think one answer would be more socially accepted than another, or because they actually think they behave in one way when they really behave in another. For this reason, questions should be subtle, not making it seem that one answer is more "correct" than another. In my questionnaire, I do not think there are many questions that might elicit this type of participant behavior. I did not test knowledge; however, there are some questions about perceived knowledge where participants may have wanted to appear as knowledgeable as possible. There are also questions in my questionnaire about reading, which is one of the issues Dörnyei mentions: people may report they read more than they do, whether it is due to social desirability or self-deception. I think that for young teenagers, though, reading a lot is not necessarily seen as a token of social prestige. Therefore I must also be aware that the opposite could actually happen here: that they might even report to read less than they actually do.

The *acquiescence bias* is when participants tend to agree when they are unsure, or, in the case of *extreme response styles* (Rasinger 2008: 63), to agree with everything. According to Rasinger, a way to avoid such bias is to have different questions that measure more or less

the same aspect from two different angles, with scales that go in opposing directions. If a participant agrees both with a positive statement and a negative statement on the same issue, there may be acquiescence bias. I have included some "double statements" like this, and have not seen any obvious acquiescence bias. This should mean at least that the participants have read and understood the questions, and that they are not simply agreeing with everything.

The *halo effect* is the tendency to overgeneralize, which means participants may always respond more favorably to questions about something they like in general, and vice versa, overly negative about something they dislike in general. When looking at, for instance, the participants' attitudes towards English compared with other foreign languages, there is a possibility that the foreign languages will receive an overly negative evaluation. My questionnaire includes an open question about this, where many participants clearly explained their thoughts on the subject. A few of them had opinions along the lines of "English is great, other languages are bad/boring". This could be an indication of overgeneralization, but it must also be accepted as their personal opinion. Most participants had seemingly more thought-through opinions which they also gave reasons for.

A final challenge in questionnaire research is the *fatigue effect*. The respondents might get tired of answering and skip questions, especially towards the end. Dörnyei says that as a principle, questionnaires should not be more than four pages long or take more than 30 minutes to complete (Dörnyei 2003: 18). With three and a half pages and most participants spending around 15 to 20 minutes to complete it, I stayed within this "ideal" questionnaire length, and the great majority of the participants finished all questions, including the open questions. There were four participants who did not write anything on the last page, which had two questions as well as an option to give comments about the questionnaire. This may have been due to them overlooking the last page, or to the fatigue effect, and is mentioned in the analysis of the corresponding questions.

All these challenges apply to the design of questionnaires in general. There is another important challenge to this kind of research (as to many other kinds of research) that especially applies to the novice researcher who does not have an extended network, a familiar name or many resources neither when it comes to time nor money, which is actually *finding the participants for the survey*. In section 4.2, I explain how the participants were chosen for this project.

4.1.2 My Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of six parts. Each part has a "thematical" headline, and consists of several questions related to that theme. I have tried to construct the questionnaire so that the parts and the questions in each part follow each other logically and are easy to follow for the participants. Most questions are "multiple choice", and it has been clearly indicated where it is possible to tick more than one box.

The questionnaire was designed to be specific and detailed on the topics it includes. In those instances where "multiple choice" answers were not sufficient to attain all the information I am looking for from the participants, there were also "open-ended" questions where it was possible to elaborate, explain, and comment. I included three such questions in the questionnaire. They were in the form of "short-answer questions" as explained in section 4.1.1 above.

In order to have an overview of the questionnaire in mind, we can say that the six parts form three groups. The first is "Background", the second is "Media", and the third is "Behavior/Attitudes".

In this project, I do not focus on pupils' socioeconomic background, nor do I make comparisons based on it. The reasons for this are further explained in section 4.2.2. Thus, the background questions are limited to Gender, in order to see if the sample was fairly balanced; Age, to make sure the participants did in fact belong to the age group I wanted to investigate; and Home language, both because it is interesting for replication reasons, and because I would need to see if some of the pupils had English as their first language and would thus not be learning English as a second or foreign language.

In previous research on the media as a source of contact with English, the media is sometimes treated as one homogenous mass. As mentioned in section 2.3.3, I wanted to have a more detailed look at media use and the contact with English it could provide. Thus the questions about media use, which consists of the headlines Internet, TV, and Other Media, ask about how much contact with English different media offer, as well as what kind of contact.

The third part had questions about the participants' opinions about their own use and learning of English, as well as their attitudes towards English in general and compared with other foreign languages.

One short paragraph in the beginning of the questionnaire explained that participation was completely voluntary; that they could choose to withdraw from the survey at any time until they turned it in; that the survey is anonymous; and that participants needed to be 15 years or older (for data protection reasons). Here I also requested that the participants answer all the questions in order for the survey to be valid. This information was also presented orally.

There is also a question at the end that asks if there was anything in the questionnaire that was difficult to understand for the participant, as well as a thank you for participating.

Even though the questionnaire was about English use, and it was handed out in English class, I chose to give the participants a Norwegian version of the questionnaire. I did not want to overwhelm them or make them feel like it was a test, and so I thought it would be easier for them to answer in Norwegian. Also, I did not want to steal too much time from their class, and it would probably have taken them longer to read and answer everything had it been in English. I think that the questionnaire being in Norwegian also made it less likely for the participants to misunderstand any of the questions. It may also have made it easier for them to answer the open questions when they did not have to think about whether they were writing correct English. Although I explained to them that participation in the survey was voluntary and anonymous, it seemed some of them could not rid themselves of the thought that it was in fact a test, and even wrote their names on the questionnaire. The setting of the classroom may have contributed to an idea amongst the participants that they would have to perform their best. I do not see this as a big problem in this case, as the participants were clearly instructed that participation was voluntary and anonymous; also, many questions were in the form of "I think", "I want", "I agree/disagree" etc., a form that you would not normally find on a test designed to test knowledge. As mentioned, it may be that motivation was heightened due to the setting.

In this thesis, the survey questions as well as all the participants' answers are presented in my translation into English. The translations have been kept as close to the original versions as possible.

4.2 Survey Participants

Whereas the previous section presented the questionnaire design, this section presents the participants. I start with a brief discussion of how to choose participants. Then in section 4.2.1, I explain who the participants are, and in section 4.2.2, why these participants were chosen.

When choosing participants for a survey that is intended to measure tendencies in a population, the sample should be representative for that population. A sample can be said to be representative when it is "very similar to the target population in its most important general characteristics" (Dörnyei 2003: 71), such as age and gender, and also "in all the more specific features that are known to be significantly related to the items included on the questionnaire (eg., L2 learning background or the amount and type of L2 instruction received)" (Dörnyei 2003: 71).

How to achieve a representative sample? "The without any doubt most valid sampling technique is *random* or *probabilistic* sampling" (Rasinger 2008: 48). This technique is often compared to drawing names out of a hat, and means that we select randomly from the entire population, of which all members have the same chance to be selected. This technique should eliminate all researcher bias when selecting participants, although it cannot eliminate the risk of sampling error: if the randomly selected sample turns out not to share the general characteristics of the population (Rasinger 2008: 49). For example, if my participants had turned out to be 107 females and no males, or they had all been 17 years old or older, they would not have matched the general population of Norwegian tenth graders, which is more balanced gender-wise, and also usually 15 or 16 years old.

However, choosing a perfectly representative sample based on probabilistic sampling is a complicated process, which there is often not time or opportunity for in smaller projects such as a master's project. Dörnyei calls it a "painstaking and costly process", and claims that "in most L2 research it is unrealistic or simply not feasible to aim for perfect representativeness" (2003: 71).

Thus, it is common to use what is known as *convenience* or *opportunity* sampling, where the researcher selects a sample based on the availability if the participants (Dörnyei 2003: 72, Rasinger 2008: 51). As mentioned in section 4.1.1, finding enough participants for

a survey can be a difficult and lengthy process. My sample must be said to be an opportunity sample and not a probabilistic sample. My attempts to achieve a probabilistic sample were fruitless for practical reasons. I will explain further the selection of participants for my study in section 4.2.1 below.

Specific challenges of using convenience samples include the *problem of participant self-selection* (Dörnyei 2003: 75), which relates to the voluntary nature of participation in surveys: Those who actually choose to participate may be a more motivated kind of people, and we lose out on those who are less motivated and choose not to participate. The sample may therefore appear more "motivated in general" than the population actually is. My questionnaire was administered to an entire group (class) at a time. This sort of *group administration* (Dörnyei 2003: 82) is a way of coping with participant self-selection, because although participation is still voluntary, participation in the survey offered something different from regular classroom teaching (which is not voluntary). Motivation may thus be higher in the setting of the classroom, with the teacher and the researcher present, as explained in section 4.1.1.

4.2.1 Who are the Participants?

There were 107 respondents to the survey. All respondents were in their last year of compulsory secondary education, which in Norway means tenth grade. Pupils in the tenth grade are usually 15 or 16 years old. To make sure of their ages, the questionnaire started with a question about this. I gave them four options; 14, 15, 16, or 17 or older. I decided to give them options rather than to ask them to fill out their age, because in the pilot study, where I did not include options, there were participants who did not fill out their age.

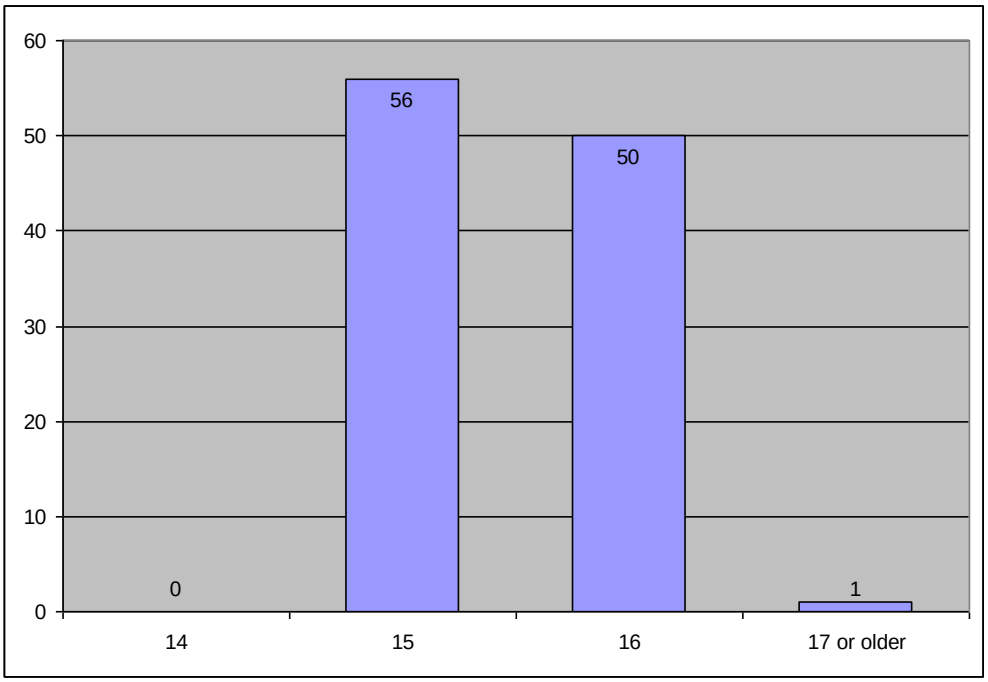

Figure 4.1 Age distribution

The participants are about half and half 15 or 16 years old. I wanted to include 14 to make sure that no younger participants were included in the sample. All participants should be 15 or older for data protection reasons, as will be explained in section 4.2.2.

The other "background" question was about gender. I will not be making comparisons based on gender, but I wished to have a fairly balanced sample. The graph below shows the gender distribution in the sample.

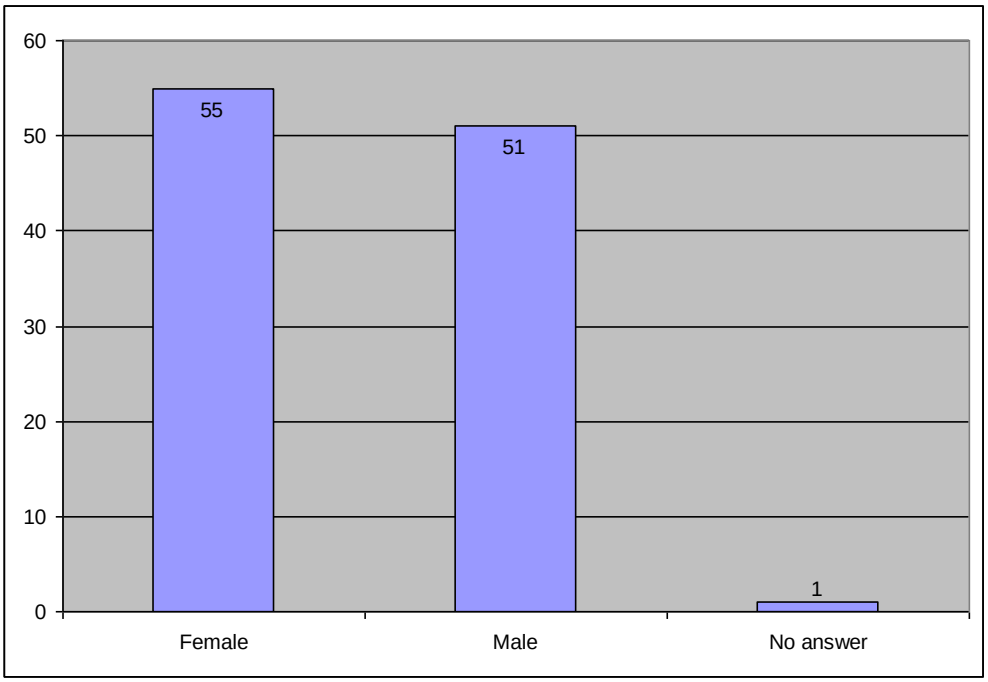

Figure 4.2 Gender distribution

With 55 females and 51 males, the sample is acceptably balanced with respect to gender.

The respondents were pupils in six different English classes in two schools in Oslo. The two schools are both located in the suburbs of Oslo, one of them in a suburb with a relatively high immigrant population, the other in a more homogenous, Norwegian suburb with a smaller immigrant population. I might have liked to have pupils from more schools participate in the survey to ensure an even more representative sample. However, practical problems prevented this; it proved difficult to get access to an English class without having connections at the schools. Fortunately, I got in touch with a teacher who let me do the pilot study on her class, and through whom I got in touch with two more teachers from different schools who let me collect data from their classes as well as their colleagues' classes.

The results are presented all together, without dividing the participants into groups. For my present purposes, differences between schools are not necessarily interesting as this is not a comparative study. When processing the data however, I divided the participants into three groups; one from the first school, one from the second, and one mixed group where half the participants were from one school and half from the other. There was no discernible difference between the three groups. The pilot study was done in a third suburb (with an even higher immigrant population). Results were similar here too. I have chosen not to do

any further comparisons between schools or classes. I am interested in general tendencies, and with a small sample, such comparisons are not necessarily fruitful. In appendix 1, the full questionnaire with the numbers from the three groups can be found. I am considering the fact that numbers are so similar across groups an indication of reliability: The method is likely to be reliable because it yields similar results in different groups.

The questionnaire was handed out during English class. I introduced myself and explained that the survey was for a master's thesis at the University, and that participation was voluntary. All 107 students in all six classes participated. They spent about 15–20 minutes completing the survey. Everyone was asked to fill out all four pages, and given the time they needed to finish.

I numbered the questionnaires from 1 to 107 after they had been filled out. The participants are referred to by these numbers.

4.2.2 Why these Participants?

As mentioned in chapter 3, it is beyond the scope of this project to measure the relationship every single Norwegian person has to the English language. And as explained in section 4.2 above, it is also beyond its scope to have a perfectly representative sample of the entire population.

For this thesis I would like to define my population not as "all people living in Norway" but rather as "all 15–16 year-olds who are taking tenth grade English in a public school in Oslo".

I think it is important that my subjects be young because I want to explore relatively new phenomena, which these participants may have lived with their whole lives. They therefore form a natural part of a new development. My hope is of course that the results of the study of this sample can help say something about larger parts of the population, but seeing as the subjects are rather young, the results may not be valid for the older parts of the population.

I wanted the participants in my study to be a representative sample of tenth-graders in Oslo. These pupils are in their very last year of compulsory education, although the absolute majority of Norwegian adolescents choose to continue their education for at least three more

years (Upper Secondary Education). This means they should all have basically the same educational foundation. They have all received all their compulsory English training.

Seeing as they all live in the same city and share a language, they also have a common cultural knowledge and receive many of the same influences. For my present purposes, these commonalities are much more important than the conceivable differences between the participants, seeing as I want to see if English is actually becoming part of this common cultural knowledge.

In addition to the participants having nearly finished all their compulsory basic education, which is important because it gives them more background for saying something about what they have learned in school versus what they have learned outside of school, there is another reason why I wanted tenth graders for the study. Although my study is anonymous (and has been approved as such by the Norwegian Social Science Data Services) it is still required, in most cases, that children under 15 receive permission from their parents to participate in surveys. This would have taken so much extra time that I preferred having participants who were old enough to choose for themselves.

5. Results

This chapter is the presentation of my findings. The findings are presented under the headlines of the research questions they relate to. The research questions can be found in chapter 3. In section 5.1, I present the findings with graphs representing the answers to each question, and discuss how the data can be interpreted. Section 5.2 is a discussion of the sum of the data, where I consider to what degree my findings might contribute new knowledge, answer my research questions and prove or disprove my hypothesis.

5.1 Presentation of Findings

In all the graphs it is the raw numbers that are shown. Considering the size of the sample (107), the raw numbers are close to the percentage values. For easy comparison of results in the descriptions of the graphs, percentages are also sometimes used. It is clearly indicated

which numbers refer to raw numbers and which refer to percentages. When percentages are used, all decimals have been rounded off to the nearest integer.

The description of the data is based on the graphical presentation of the *frequency distribution* (Butler 1985: viii).

The original questionnaire can be found in Appendix 1. The answers will not be presented in the same order as in the questionnaire, but grouped according to which research question(s) they relate to.

5.1.1 Background—Home language

The last background question in the questionnaire treated the main home language(s) of the participants. This question was included for the purpose of seeing whether the sample was representative of the population in the way that most of them should be Norwegian speakers. Also, I needed to know if many participants had English as their native language, because this would make them neither second nor foreign language learners, and their relationship with English would thus be different from that of a learner.

The options given for main home language were Norwegian, English, or other, and it was possible to tick more than one box.

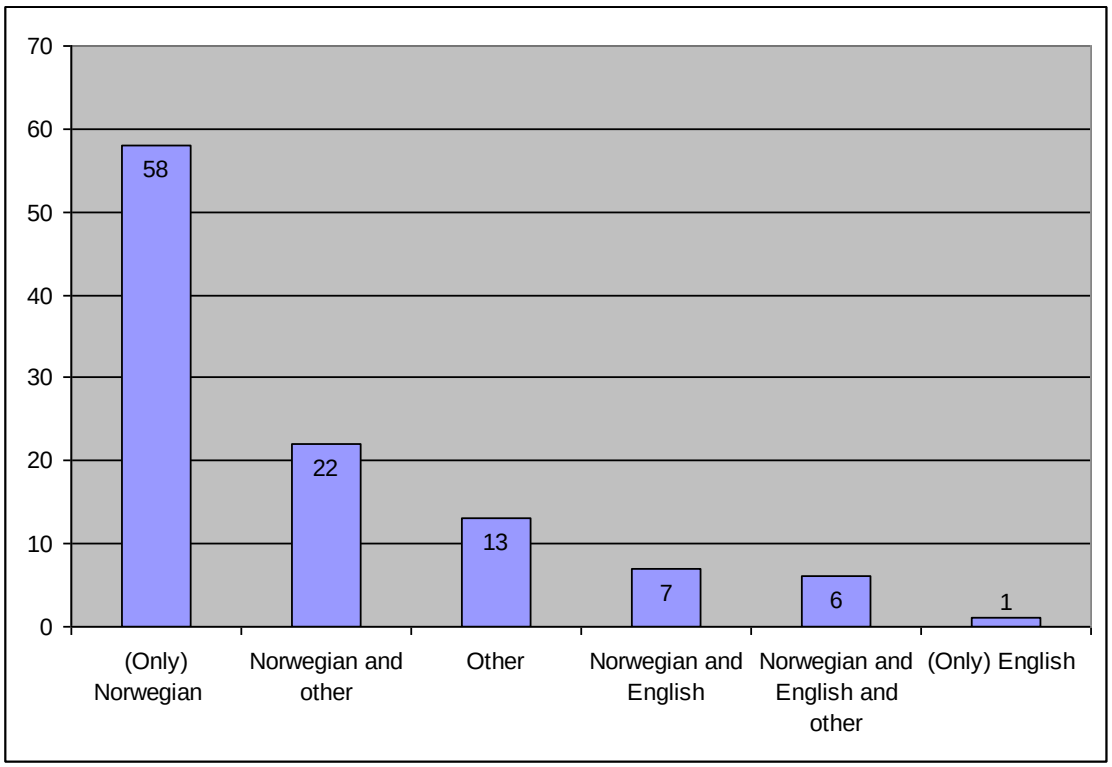

Figure 5.1 Language usually spoken at home

As we can see from this figure, 93 out of 107 participants use Norwegian at home. A total of 58 out of 107 claim Norwegian as their main home language, the remaining 35 Norwegian speakers use it in combination with one or more other languages (including English). A total of 14 participants claim English as one of their home languages; only one participant claims to have English as her main (only) home language[19]. This means that 13% of our participants actually speak English at home and thus cannot be considered second language learners; we must assume that they are native speakers of English.

However, there are indications in the questionnaire that several of these participants are not in fact bilinguals in the traditional sense, but have learned English well as adolescents, for instance when going to school abroad. Where this is the case, these would actually be good examples of second language learners. Since I cannot define exactly the status of English for these pupils, I do not exclude them from the sample. Their answers will,

[19] Participant 99 is a special participant. She is the only one who is older than 16, the only one who speaks only English at home, and the only one who claims not to have access to the internet. She is one of the few that rarely or never listens to the radio or music in English, nor does she chat online, nor does she watch TV. She still claims exposure and use of English every day in "other" situations, which seem to mainly have to do with her family and reading.

however, be singled out in some questions, where it might be interesting to see their responses as separate from the responses of those who are undoubtedly learners.

As many as 41 participants know and use at least one other language that is not English or Norwegian. The sample is then quite diverse, as would be expected from an average tenth grade class in Oslo.

This means that a great majority uses Norwegian at home. A large minority speak another language at home, either in addition to or instead of Norwegian, and a smaller minority has English as one of their home languages. No participants claim to use English and another language without also using Norwegian. All participants of course speak Norwegian as they are able to participate both in class and in the survey.

So far, we can therefore say that English is used at home by 13% of the participants, although it is not yet clear to which degree.

5.1.2 Participation in Natural Communication

As we have seen in the discussion of the research questions in chapter 3, it is important to the status of a language whether the learner has good opportunities for participation in natural communication situations. This question is treated both in this section and in section 5.1.5 on the mass media and communication. Here I start with the use of English outside school in general, and in specific communication situations: traveling abroad and code-switching when speaking Norwegian.

The first question is a broad one, asking if the participants speak or write a lot of English in their spare time. This is a very open phrasing that can be problematic in questionnaire research, as mentioned in section 4, because it does not give conclusive answers to just how much English they speak or write. However, it can provide a first overview of the participants' perceptions of their own English production.

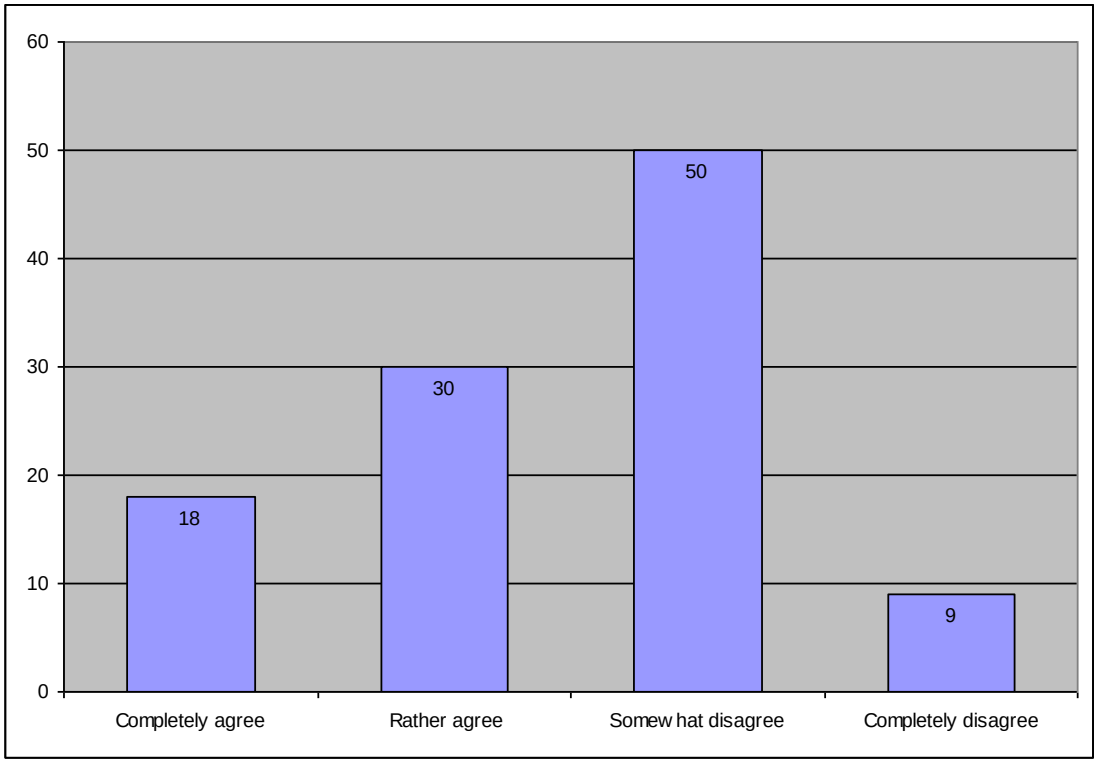

Figure 5.2 Production of English in spare time.

In Figure 5.2, we see that the participants' linguistic production is not great, as 59 participants, or 55%, somewhat or completely disagree that they speak or write English

frequently in their spare time. Speaking and writing has not been separated here, in an attempt to capture overall production, and with the idea that if the pupils communicate online they would probably write as much as they speak. As mentioned, the open phrasing leaves it up to the respondents themselves to subjectively decide what "frequently" or "a lot" means. It is therefore possible that even the 9 who completely disagree do actually produce English, but not enough for them to classify it as a lot.

We can still see that 48 participants, 45%, do completely or rather agree that they use English a lot in their spare time. Among these 48 we find 13 of the 14 English-speaking participants. If we include the 50 who somewhat disagree, 96% do use English to at least a certain degree in their spare time.

Norwegian teenagers do not necessarily have opportunities to use English in their daily life in Norway. Only 13% of my participants claim it as one of their home languages. But what happens when they go to places where they cannot make themselves understood in Norwegian, do they know enough English to think it is okay to communicate in it? The next question was whether the pupils thought it was easy to speak English when they are abroad.

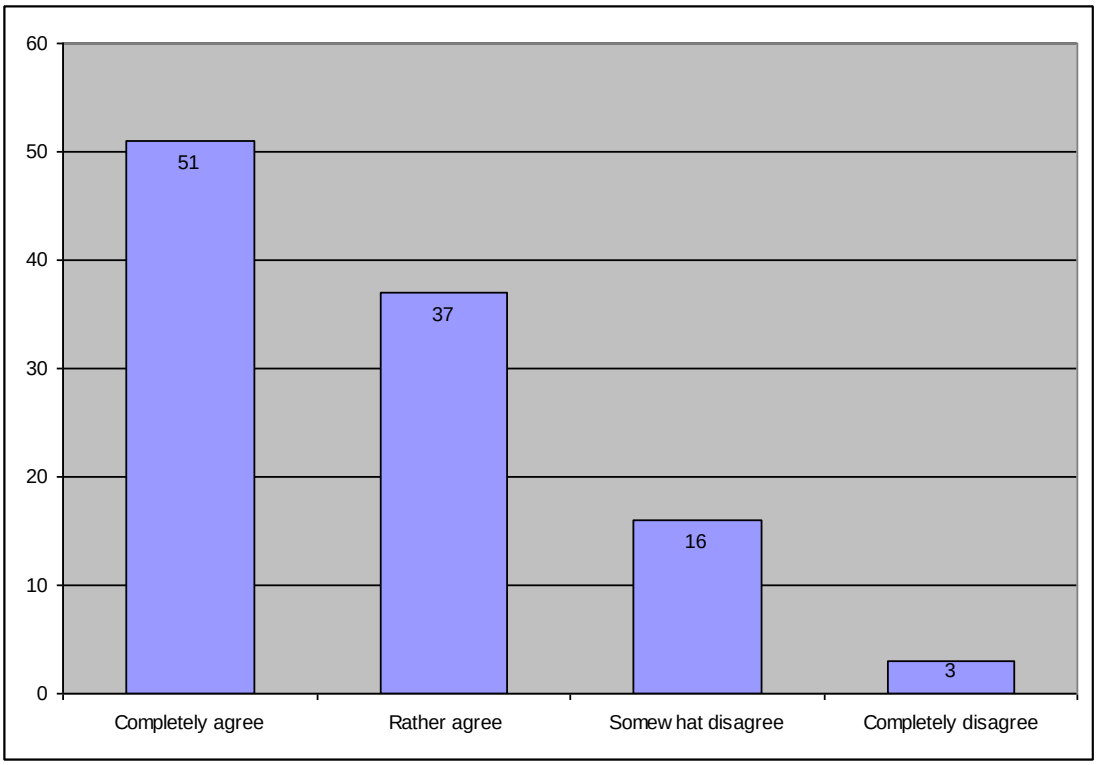

Figure 5.3 Easy to speak English when traveling abroad.

I have not asked the students whether or not they actually travel, and there is of course a possibility that some or many of them do not. As we will see later, however, answers to other questions show that many of these pupils have indeed traveled and consider this an important source for contact with English.

There are 88 respondents, or 82%, who completely or rather agree that they think it is easy to speak English when they are abroad.

Although the focus of the present study is neither on loanwords nor code-switching[20], I wanted to include here the question of whether there is often mixing in of English words or expressions when speaking Norwegian or other languages. Is English also present, although to a limited degree, even when the pupils are speaking their first language?

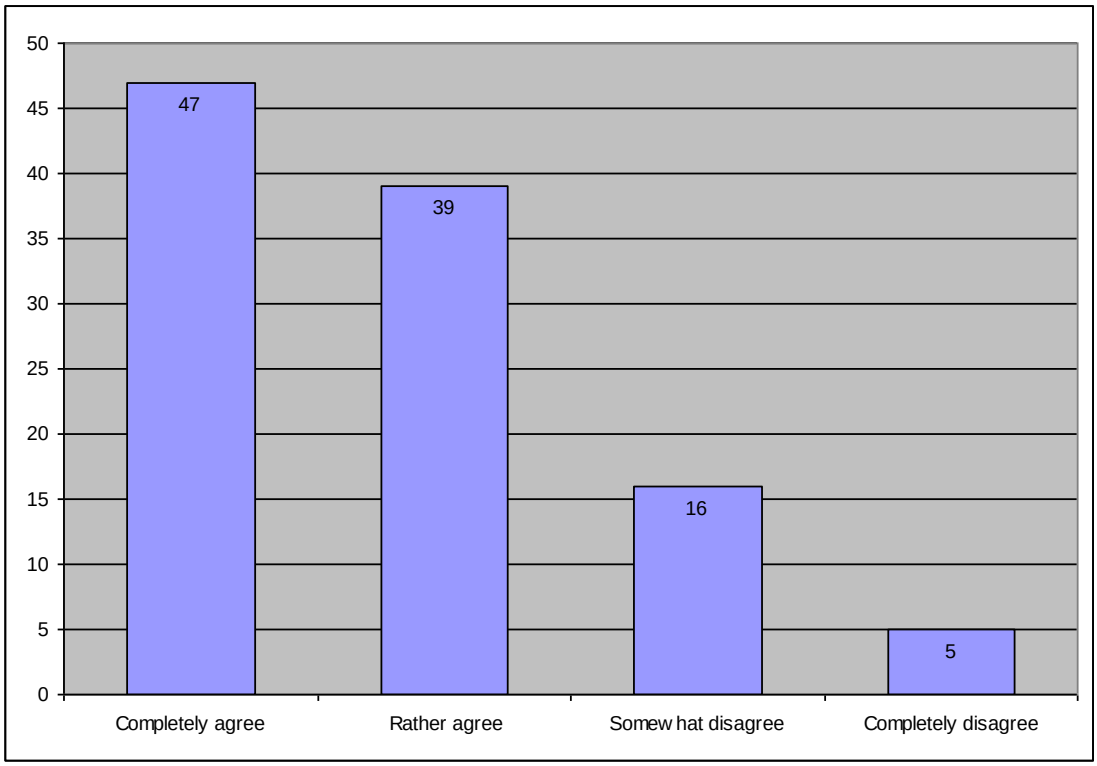

Figure 5.4 Often using English words or expressions in other languages.

It is of course possible to use English words without thinking about them being English, but rather considering them a natural part of your own language. Many Norwegians regularly mix in English words or expressions when they speak, and 86 of the participants completely or somewhat agree that they do this. This also must mean that they are aware of these words or expressions being English rather than Norwegian. However, during the

[20] For treatment of these topics see e.g. Johansson and Graedler (2002).

survey, a few pupils volunteered several words and expressions, especially swearwords, to make sure they “counted” as English words. This might mean that they are usually using the words without being aware of them being English words.

5.1.3 The Role of Classroom Teaching

What is the role of classroom teaching in the pupils' learning of English? Is language acquisition supplemented by classroom teaching, or is classroom teaching the main source of contact with the language? Figure 5.5 shows that 65 participants, or 60%, completely or rather agree that they have learned most of the English they know in school. As we have seen in section 2.3.4, one of the reasons why English is different from the foreign languages is that it is taught from an early age. These pupils have already studied English in school for 10 years. Nevertheless, with 10 years of training, 42 pupils or 39% still say that they have learned most of their English elsewhere. Six of these are from the bilingual group, while 8 pupils who claim English as a home language also completely or rather agree that they have learned most of their English in school. As mentioned in section 5.1.1, this might point to them not being bilinguals in the traditional sense of having two mother tongues. Even though they have learned English at home from a young age the use of English there might be restricted.

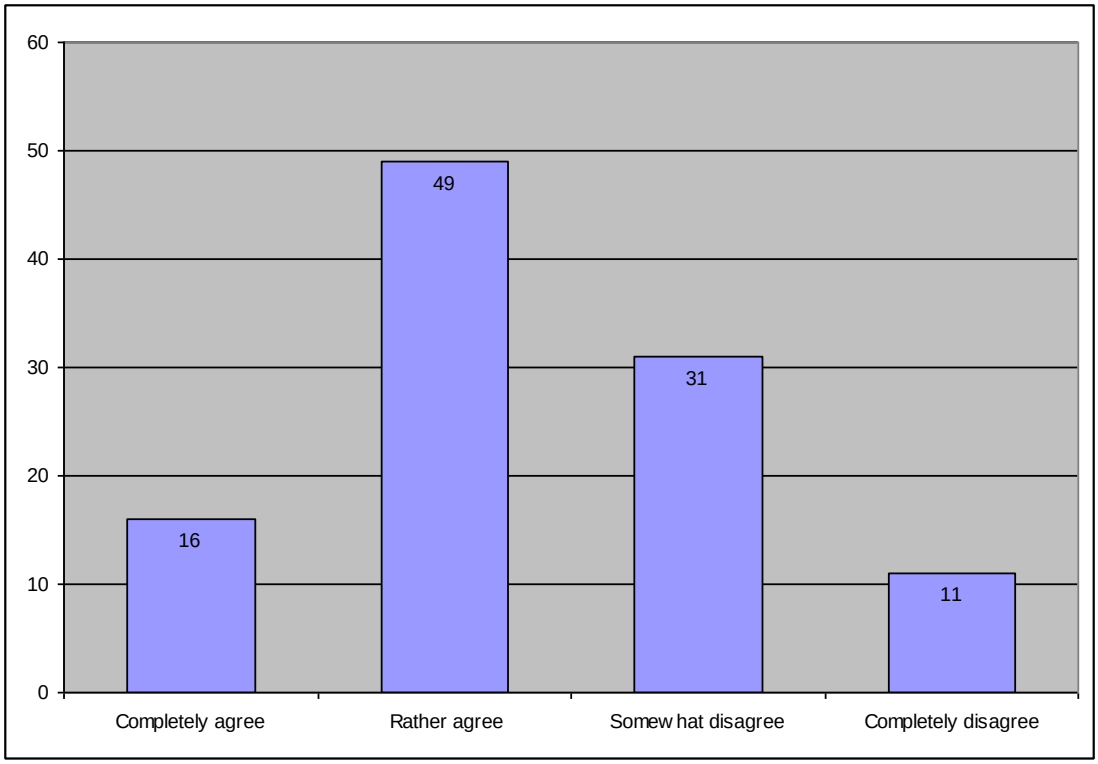

Figure 5.5 Learned most of my English in school

Is classroom teaching then a supplement or the main source of contact with English? Figure 5.6 shows that 87 pupils, or 81%, completely or rather agree that a lot of what they study in English class is already familiar to them. Only 3 completely disagree. This does point to the pupils having contact with English outside of school, but the pupils could also of course be thinking about the teaching they have already received, and how it makes the subject familiar to them. But then studying a subject for many years does not necessarily make new topics feel familiar or as if you "already know a lot" about them.

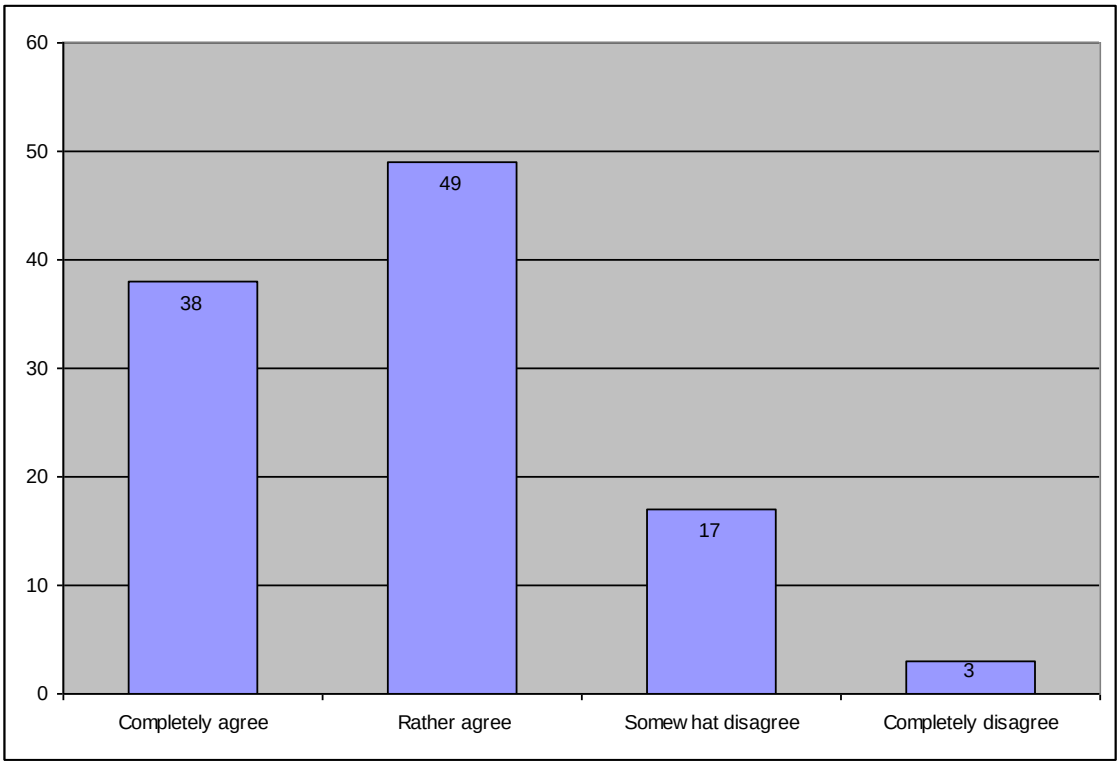

Figure 5.6 Already know the English we learn in school

An open question needed to be added: Where do the pupils come into contact with English? Where is it that they feel they learn the most English if not in school?

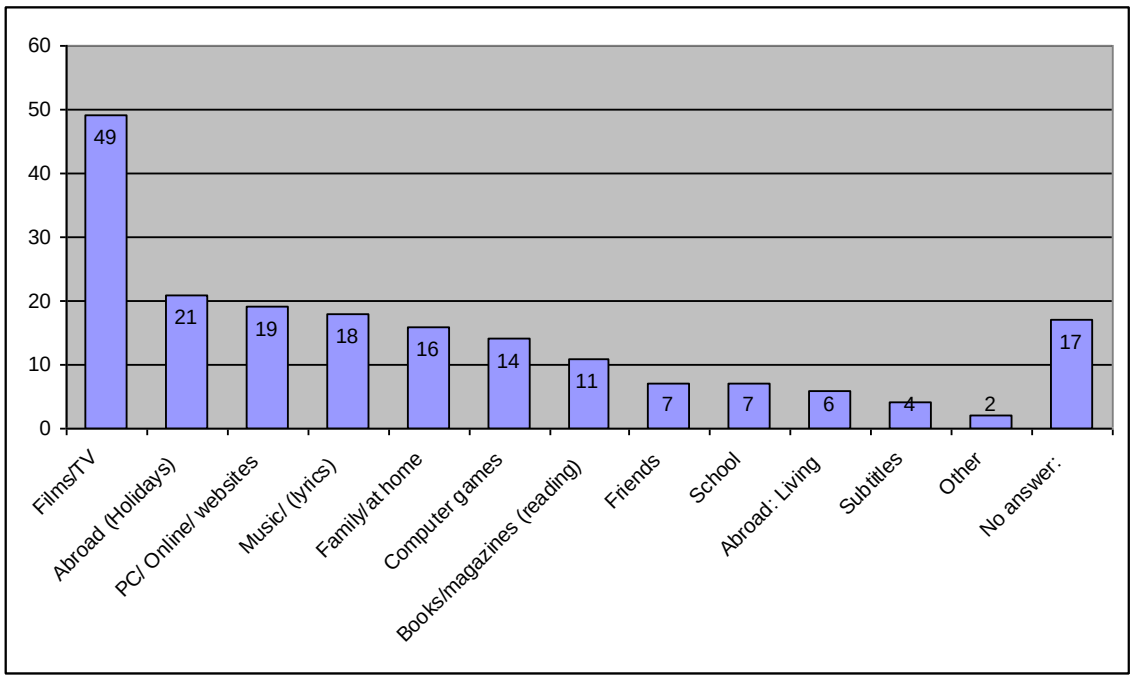

Figure 5.7 Where English is mostly learned outside of school.

Out of a total of 107, there were 90 pupils that had an answer to this. Many of them had several answers, which is why there are 147 answers in the chart ("No answer" not included). I have coded the answers into the following categories: Abroad (Holidays), Abroad: Living, Music (lyrics), Films/TV, PC/ Online/ Websites, Computer games, Books/Magazines (reading), Family/at home, Friends, School, Subtitles, and Other. A typical answer that falls into several categories comes from participant 14: "Music, TV, internet and films. And when you go abroad on holiday. Read English books in my spare time". This has been coded as 1 Music, 1 TV/films, 1 Abroad (holidays) and 1 Books/Magazines (reading).

If I had coded TV and films separately they would each have received a point here instead of sharing one. I have not done this because TV and films have been treated as one throughout the questionnaire, and many pupils seem to consider them two sides of the same coin. Examples are participant 44: "A little bit on TV ex films etc". Or participant 42: "I learn the most when I watch English films or series". Three participants (74, 77, and 89) write out "TV/Films". It is still clear though that this is the most popular category, with 49 pupils writing it down, 44% of all those who gave an answer.

The second most popular answer was going abroad. 27 pupils mentioned this as an important source of learning. Out of these, 6 said they had lived abroad. Living abroad

seems an important learning experience. Participant 48 says: “I stayed in Australia for a whole year, from 2008–2009. That’s where I learned everything I know now.” Participant 100 also underlines the importance of living abroad: “I have learned everything by myself because I have lived abroad and I learn the best from hearing English”. It seems that those who mention going abroad have been several times or go regularly, such as Participant 23: “I have learned some when I have been on holidays abroad, ex England, USA”, participant 8: “When I have been to English-speaking countries (holidays)”, or participant 3: “On holidays to Thailand, the USA and the Caribbean”. Participant 32 explains what is different about going abroad: “In books, TV and abroad. It’s usually there I speak English the most”. Participant 5 explains what in particular he has learned: “I think I’ve learned to order food etc. when I’m abroad”.

The third category has to do with computer use. Some respondents write “computer”, which does not necessarily have to mean Internet use, but most likely it does. See Figure 5.15 for frequency of Internet use. Most of them, however, write “online” or “Internet”, or mention the websites they feel have taught them the most. Examples are www.youtube.com, where you can watch videos, www.msn.com, which is live chat, www.facebook.com, a social network site, and www.nikefootball.com. Participant 62 writes: “I have learned an incredible lot from youtube! There I both listen to and write in English!” Many sites are increasingly communicative in their purpose. On YouTube, like this participant writes, you can both watch videos and then leave written comments or have discussions about them.

The next category is music. Figure 5.9 shows that the pupils hear a great deal of English through music. Only 18 have mentioned it as one of their most important sources for learning in Figure 5.7. Three of these specify that they read song lyrics and look up words they do not understand.

Although the question was about English learned outside of school, 7 participants mentioned school as one of their most important sources for learning.

I have also included subtitles as a category because 4 participants especially mentioned it. Participant 15 writes: “You see the subtitles and learn through them.” Participant 57 elaborates: “When I watch English films with Norwegian subtitles I learn new English words that I can use later.” But two other participants especially mention TV or films *without* subtitles as a source of learning.

The two answers in the “other” category, that I could not classify with the others, come from participant 91, who has an English coach and learns from him, and participant 80, who simply says: “I’m not really sure. I pick it up in the course of everyday life.”

The participants thus have many and varied answers to where they feel they learn the most English outside of school. Exposure to English through television and films is the most popular answer, mentioned by 49 out of 107 participants.

5.1.4 Practicing Receptive Skills through the Mass Media

Do the mass media provide opportunities for practicing receptive skills?

Section 5.1.3 shows that the acquisition of English among the participants is clearly supplemented by formal instruction. A majority of the participants sees formal instruction as their most important source of learning, as seen in Figure 5.5 Learned most of my English in school However, as seen in Figure 5.7 Where English is mostly learned outside of school. the participants also have a great many other sources of contact with English that they consider important for learning.

I wanted to explore the role of the media as a provider of linguistic input, and asked the participants whether they agreed that they hear or read a lot of English in their daily life, for instance from radio, TV, music, computers, books, magazines, etc. Figure 5.8 shows that the great majority, 86%, completely or rather agree that they receive a lot of English input in their spare time. Only one participant completely disagrees.

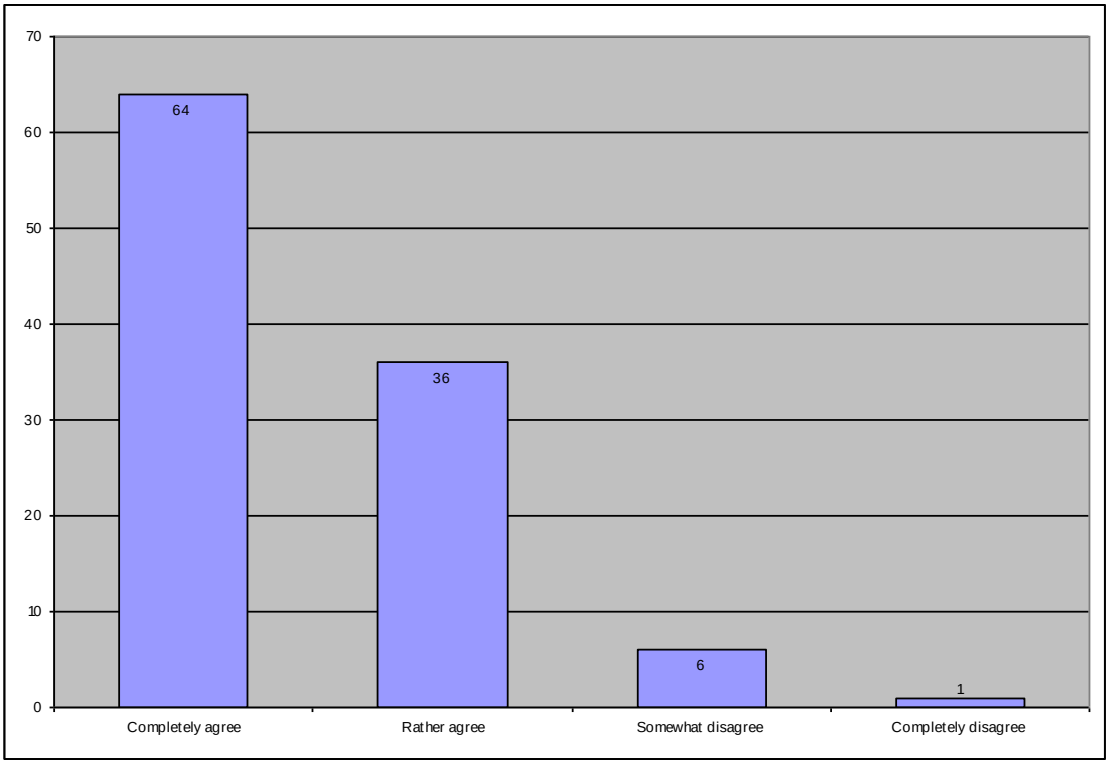

Figure 5.8 Exposure to English in spare time

As in Figure 5.2 about *production* of English, Figure 5.8 gives a first overview of the participants' subjective perception of *exposure* to English. In order to say something about

the degree to which the mass media may provide opportunities for practicing receptive skills, we need to know more specifically *where* and *how often* they hear and read English.

For spoken English, I decided to ask specifically about what I considered to be the most likely sources for input: Music/ Radio and Online (e.g. youtube, games). There was also an open "other" category, where participants were asked to specify.

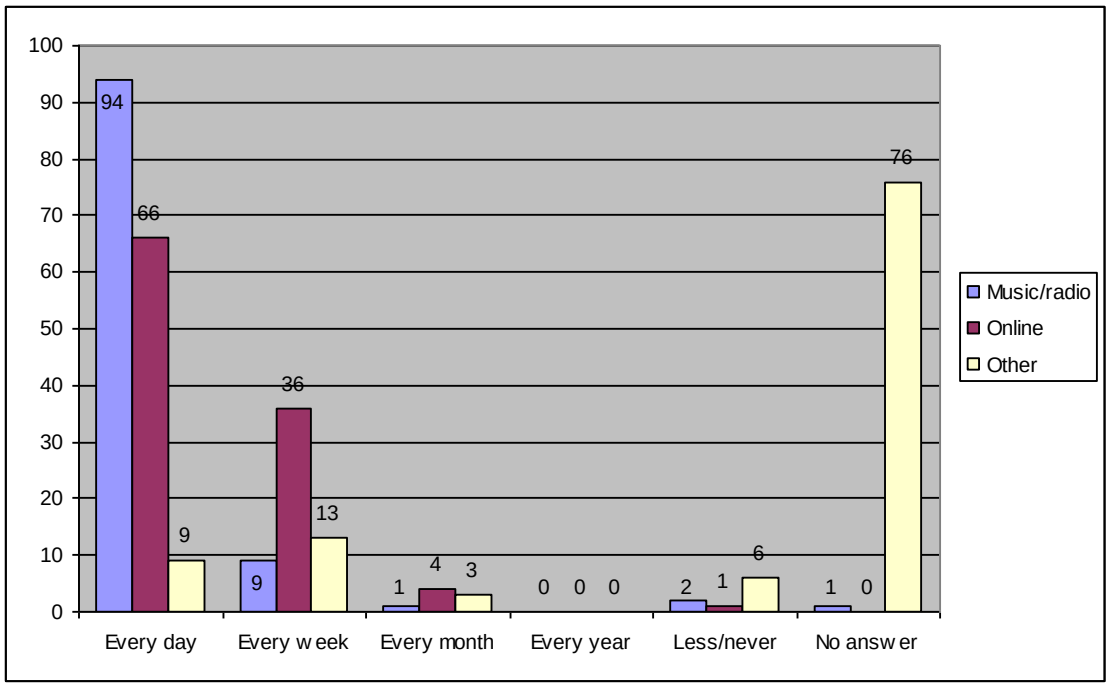

Figure 5.9 How often do you hear the English language?

A great majority, 94 out of 107, hears English music or radio every day. Only two participants say they rarely or never hear it. A majority of 66 respondents, or 61%, hear English on the Internet every day, and a total of 102 respondents, or 94%, hear English on the Internet at least once a week. Only one claims rarely or never to hear English on the Internet.

The reason why the question reads "hear" not "listen to" is that I am not only interested in active listening here, and wanted this to be clear to the participants.

There are 76 respondents who do not have an answer to how often they hear English in other situations than music, radio or online, and 6 respondents who say that they rarely or never hear English in other settings than these. This may mean that the options they have been given are where they mostly get to hear English, and they cannot think of any other sources of input of spoken English.

Out of the remaining 25 respondents who do say that they hear the language in other settings on a regular basis (every month or more), 6 of them specify where: Every day: TV (participant 15), Every day: Music (34), Every day: Films (47), Every week: Watching films (55), Every week: Playstation (61), and Every week: Skype with English friends (104).

TV and films were not mentioned specifically in this section, which may be why 3 respondents wanted to emphasize that they also hear English on TV or in films. Perhaps this is what the other 19 respondents also are thinking of when they say they hear English in other settings regularly without specifying where. TV and films were the subject of the previous section in the questionnaire, and was therefore not included again in this section. This may also be the reason why this has not been mentioned by more participants.

Only one participant (104) mentions hearing English in communication with others.

The majority of the respondents practice their receptive skills of spoken English every day. What about written English? I wanted to include written English on the Internet, and distinguish it from reading on paper to see if Internet use could also be a source for practicing reading skills. To make it clear what was meant by online reading I included examples in the question thus: "online (e.g. blogs, articles, manuals, e-mail)".

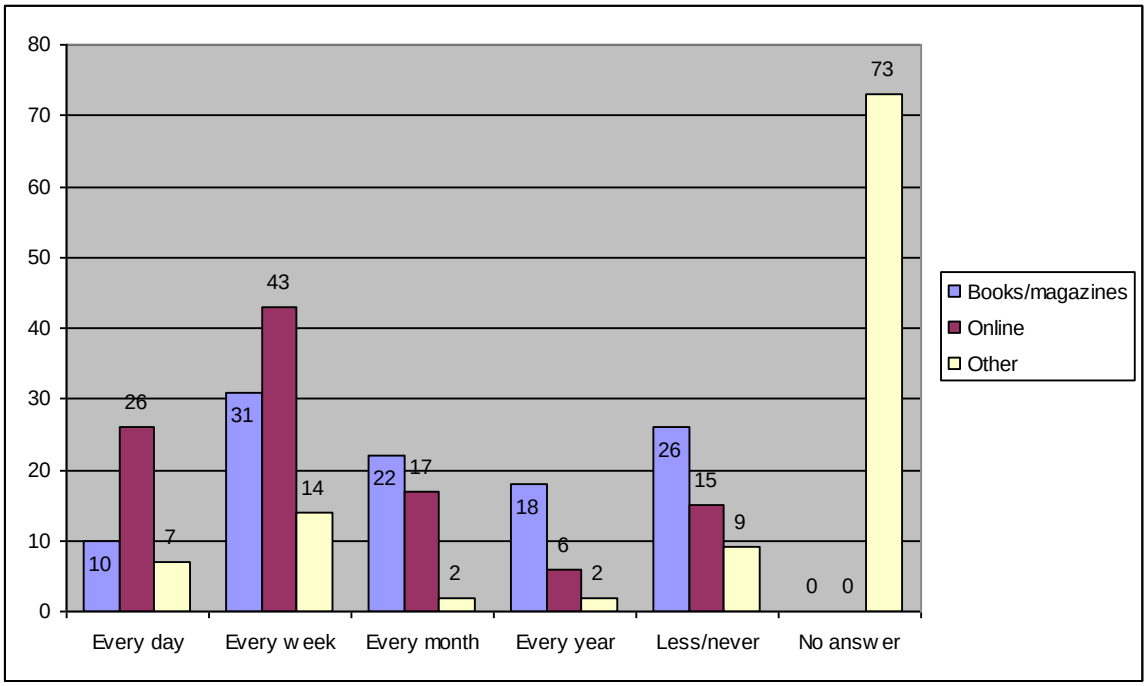

Figure 5.10 Comparison of what is read in English

It is clear that the pupils read more frequently online than they do on paper. Among those who read most frequently, 64% read online at least once a week, compared to 38% who read on paper at least once a week.

There is also a difference between the groups that read the least: The groups that read on paper less than every month make up 41%, whereas those who read online less than every month only make up 20%.

Music and the Internet are important sources of input for the participants. Another important medium, and possible source of English exposure, is television. As seen in Figure 5.7 Where English is mostly learned outside of school. the participants consider TV and films important sources of learning English. The next three figures show the amount of English exposure TV provides. Figure 5.11 shows how often the participants watch TV, web-TV (television programs online), or films.

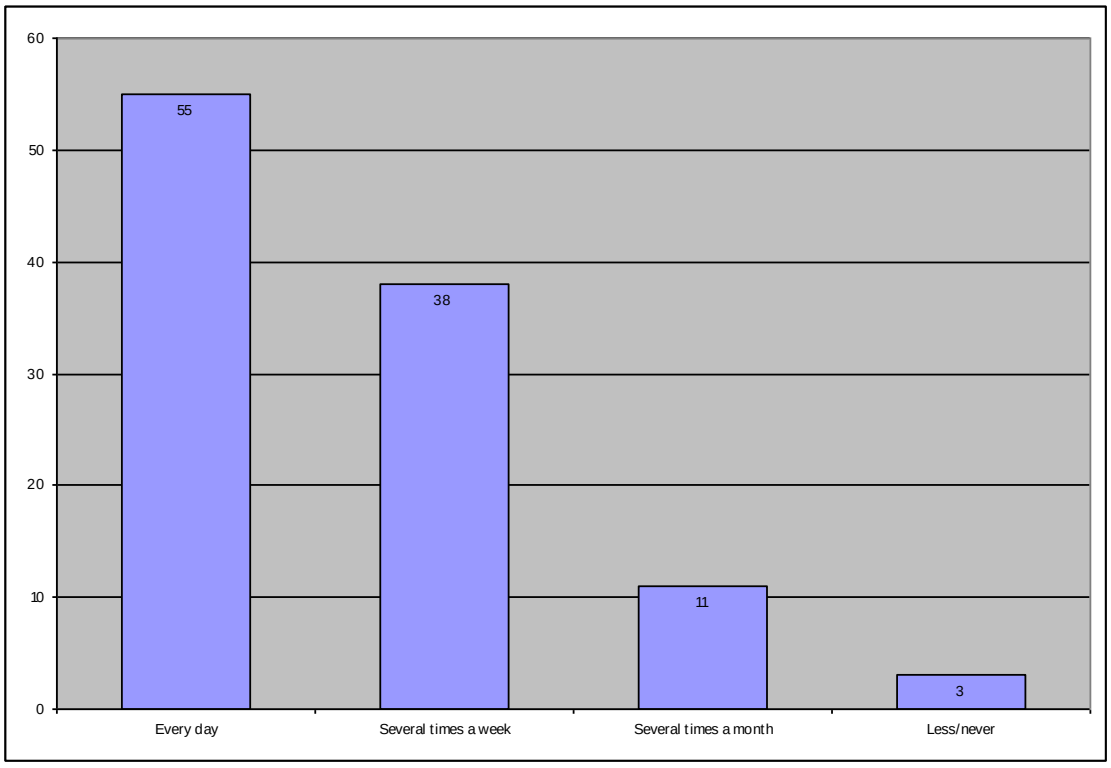

Figure 5.11 Frequency of watching TV/web-TV/films

Watching TV is popular. More than half of the participants watch TV every day, 86% watch it every week. Only 3 participants watch TV less than every month. Watching TV or films is a leisure activity that can provide considerable linguistic input. On Norwegian TV, most programs and films are broadcast in their original language versions, and there is a

great amount of English language programs. But there are also many programs in Norwegian as well as in Swedish or Danish, which are intelligible languages to most Norwegian speakers. I wanted to see how many of the programs watched could provide English input, and asked how much of the television the participants watch is in English, and how much of it is in Norwegian or Scandinavian languages. The percentage ranges in the table are the options that were given in the questionnaire.

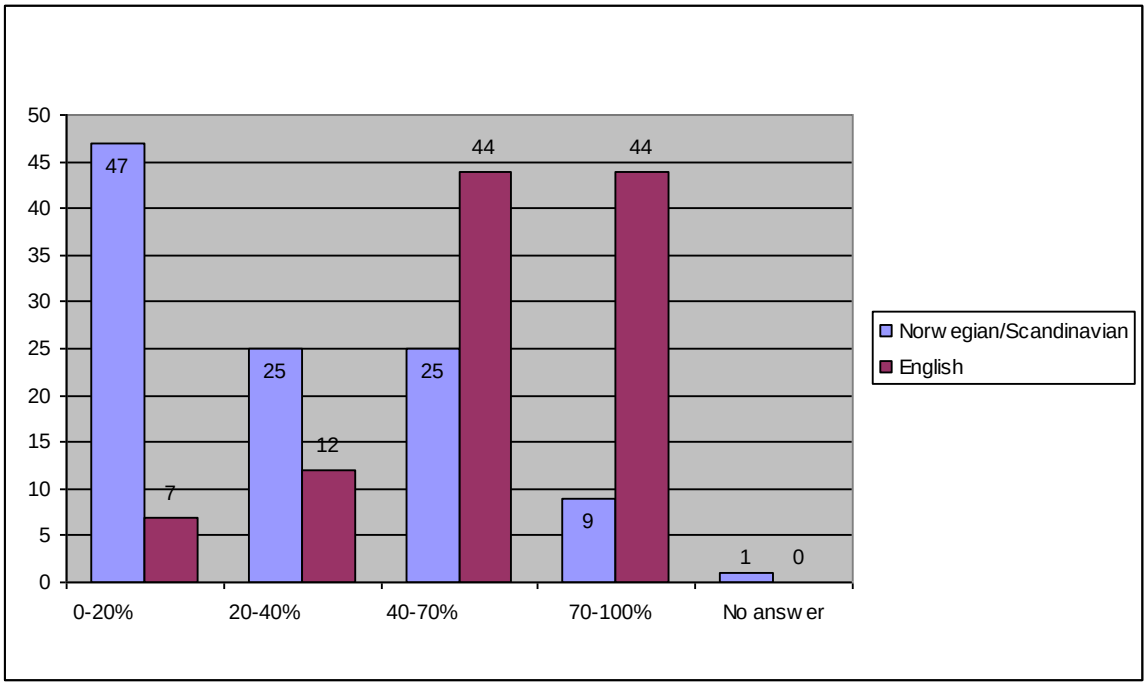

Figure 5.12 Percentage of Norwegian/Scandinavian versus English language TV

The amount of TV programs or films watched in Norwegian or other Scandinavian languages makes up a smaller percentage than English language programs or films. 47 respondents, almost half of the participants, say that 20% or less of the TV they watch is in Norwegian or another Scandinavian language. A slightly smaller number, 44, say that 70% or more of the TV they watch is in English.

88 respondents watch TV in English more than 40% of the time; less than half of this; 34, watch Scandinavian language programs more than 40% of the time. Only 19 respondents say that programs in English make up less than 40% of the total amount of TV they watch.

There is of course the possibility here of the respondents watching TV in other languages besides Norwegian/Scandinavian or English, but I did not ask about other languages in the survey.

TV and films are clearly an important source of exposure to the English language for the participants.

On Norwegian TV, programs in other languages are usually broadcast in their original versions and provided with subtitles. This gives opportunities for exposure to English or other languages, and ensures understanding because you can listen and concurrently read the Norwegian translation of what is being said. Subtitles could therefore also be a source for learning. I asked the participants how many of the television programs they watch in English have subtitles.

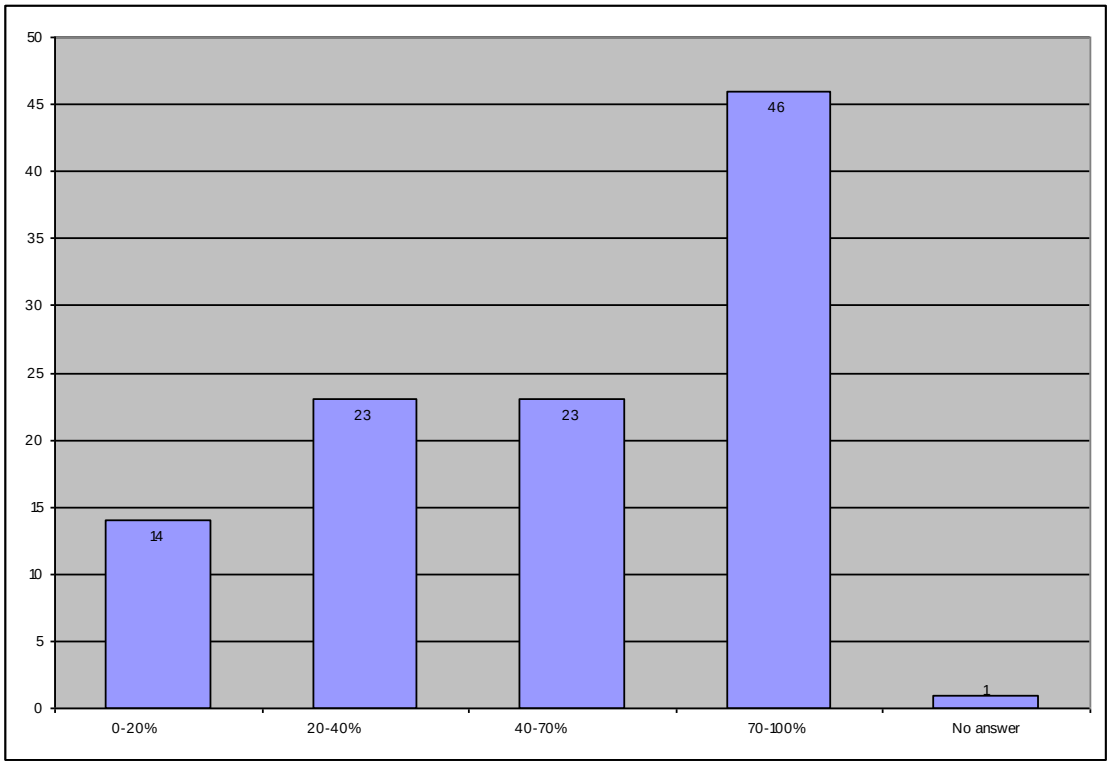

Figure 5.13 Percentage of English language TV watched with subtitles

A majority of the participants watch TV with subtitles most of the time when they watch TV in English; 43% always or almost always watch subtitled versions.

Although programs on Norwegian TV are usually subtitled, it is possible to watch programs in English that are not, for instance on foreign channels, on the Internet, or by choosing not to have subtitles on a digital film. Those who choose this necessarily need to have a good enough understanding of English to make do without help of the subtitles. A total of 56% do watch English language programs and films without subtitles at least on

occasion, and 34% watch with subtitles less than half of the time they watch programs or films in English.

Television is thus a provider of opportunities for exposure to English for the participants. Music and the Internet are also important sources of spoken input, and the Internet, together with print material, also provides opportunities for practicing reading skills. The opportunities for practicing receptive skills in English through the mass media are clearly present and plentiful.

5.1.5 Practicing Communicative Skills through the Mass Media

Do the mass media also give opportunities for practicing communicative skills, and are these being exploited by the participants?

In addition to being a source of linguistic input, the mass media increasingly provide opportunities for communication. As seen in section 5.1.2, participation in natural communication is important for language acquisition and the status of a language. I wanted to see how the pupils make use of new technology, and to what degree Internet technology could be a source of communication and an opportunity for real English use. First, I asked whether the pupils had access to the Internet in their spare time.

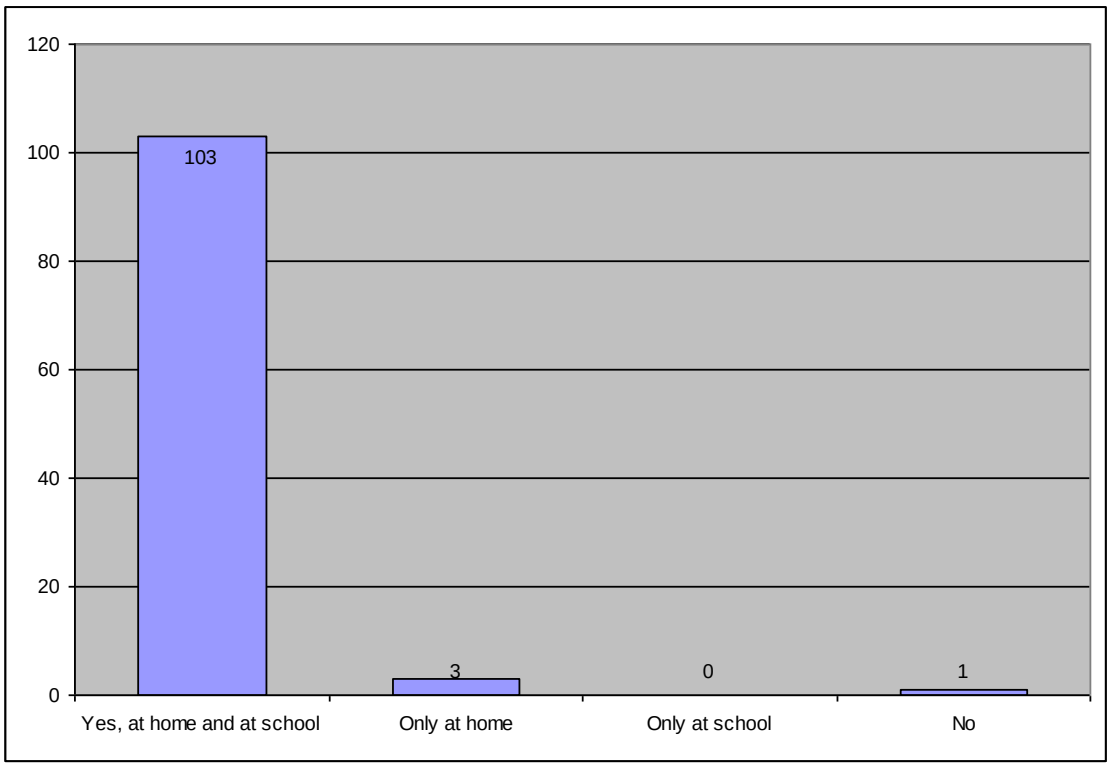

Figure 5.14 Internet access

An absolute majority have access to the Internet in their daily life. Only one (see footnote 19) claims not to have it, although I have been told by the teachers that all pupils can use the Internet at school, also in their free time.

The next question was how often they normally use the Internet.

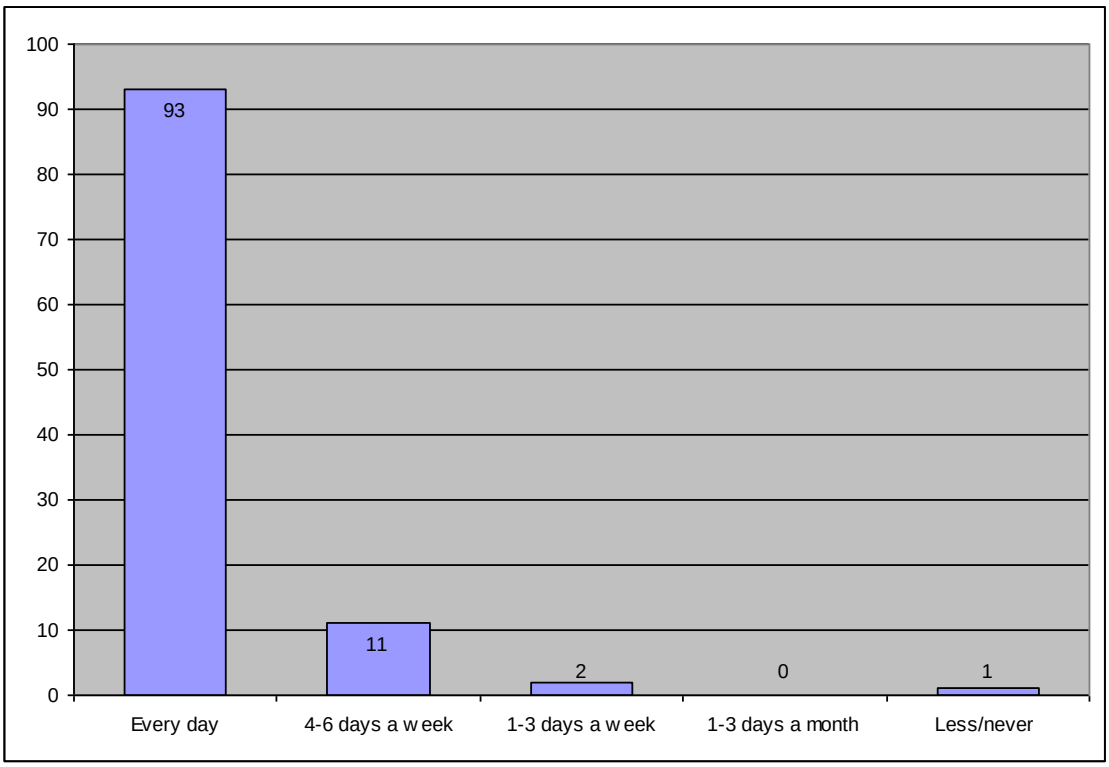

Figure 5.15 Frequency of Internet use

The great majority, 87%, claims to use the Internet every day. All the respondents, except for (the same) one use the Internet at least once a week. I also wanted to know for how long they would use the Internet when they use it, and asked; when you use the Internet, for how long do you normally use it during one day?

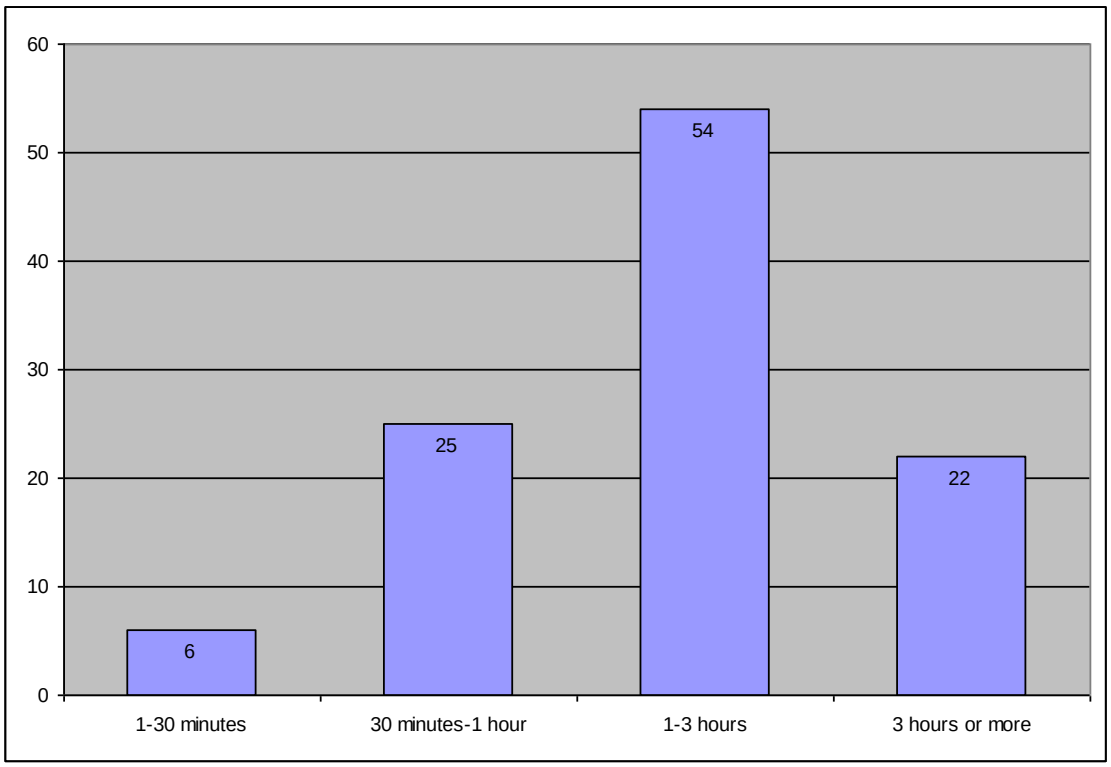

Figure 5.16 Internet use per day

50% of the respondents use the Internet for between 1 and 3 hours each day they use it. Counting the 22 who use it for more than 3 hours, 67% are online for more than an hour the days they use it. Out of the remaining 33%, only 6 pupils are online for less than 30 minutes each day. Combining the information from this and the previous table, we can say that a majority of the pupils use the Internet for at least an hour every day.

What do they use the Internet for? We have already seen that the respondents receive both spoken (Figure 5.9) and written (Figure 5.10) exposure to English online. But what about communication? I decided to ask if the pupils used some specific websites; namely www.facebook.com , www.hotmail.com , www.gmail.com , www.msn.com , and www.myspace.com. What these websites have in common is that they are extremely popular, they are well-known, and they have communicative purposes. Some of their main applications are sending messages and live chat.

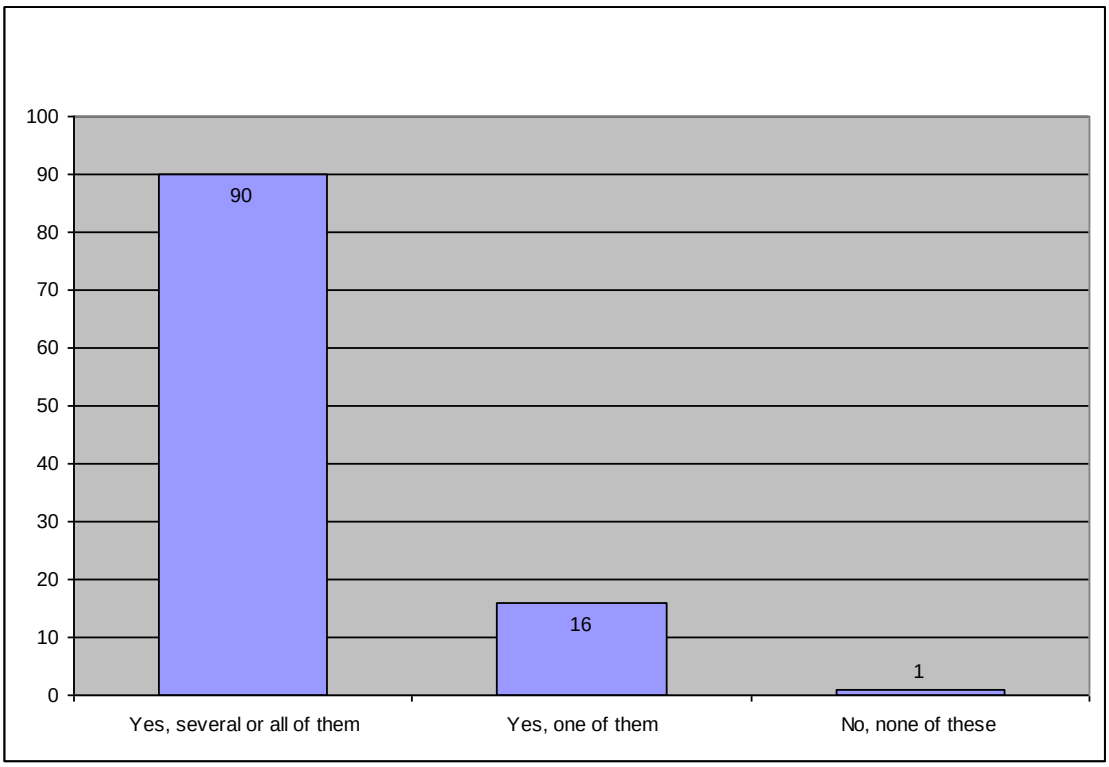

Figure 5.17 Social (communication) websites

There are 90 participants who use two or more of these websites. All the participants, except the one who does not have Internet access, use at least one of them. This means that the great majority have at least one online "profile" through which they can connect with others.

These websites are international, and popular all over the world. Although it is easy to connect with people from all over the world, it is also possible to use the websites only for communication with people from your own speech community. All these websites originally only existed in the English version. Now they all offer Norwegian (among many other) language versions. Thus, although these sites offer possibilities both for communication with people who speak other languages as well as other language versions, it is not problematic to reject these possibilities and still make use of the website.

Therefore I wanted to establish what language the participants did in fact use when they used these websites. I asked if they used them in Norwegian, English or in another language.

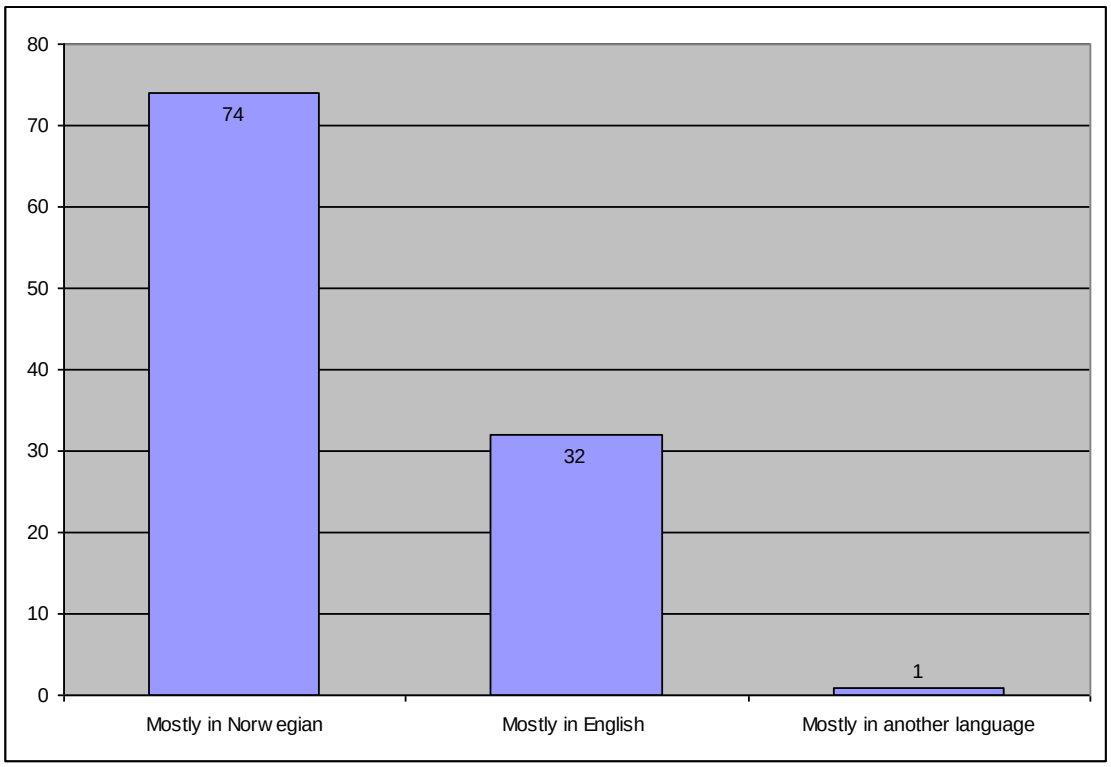

Figure 5.18 Language of websites

The question may seem ambiguous, as it may be interpreted both as asking what language version is used, as well as what language they communicate in. The question of chat (Figure 5.20) provides more information on language used for communication. If a participant has the Norwegian version of the site, but mainly uses it to communicate in English, I do not think it would be too wrong if he chose to answer "mostly in English", as my focus is on whether English is used for communicative purposes.

The majority, 74 pupils, mostly use the websites in Norwegian, and 32 participants say they mostly use them in English. In this group we find 10 of the 14 participants who say English is one of their home languages, the remaining four prefer Norwegian.

It is clear then that these social websites are in use by the participants. For almost a third of them, the websites are also a source of contact with English. The next step is to see if the Internet is actually being used for live communication, whether through the abovementioned websites or others. The question I asked was how often the pupils chat on msn, chat sites, computer games etc.

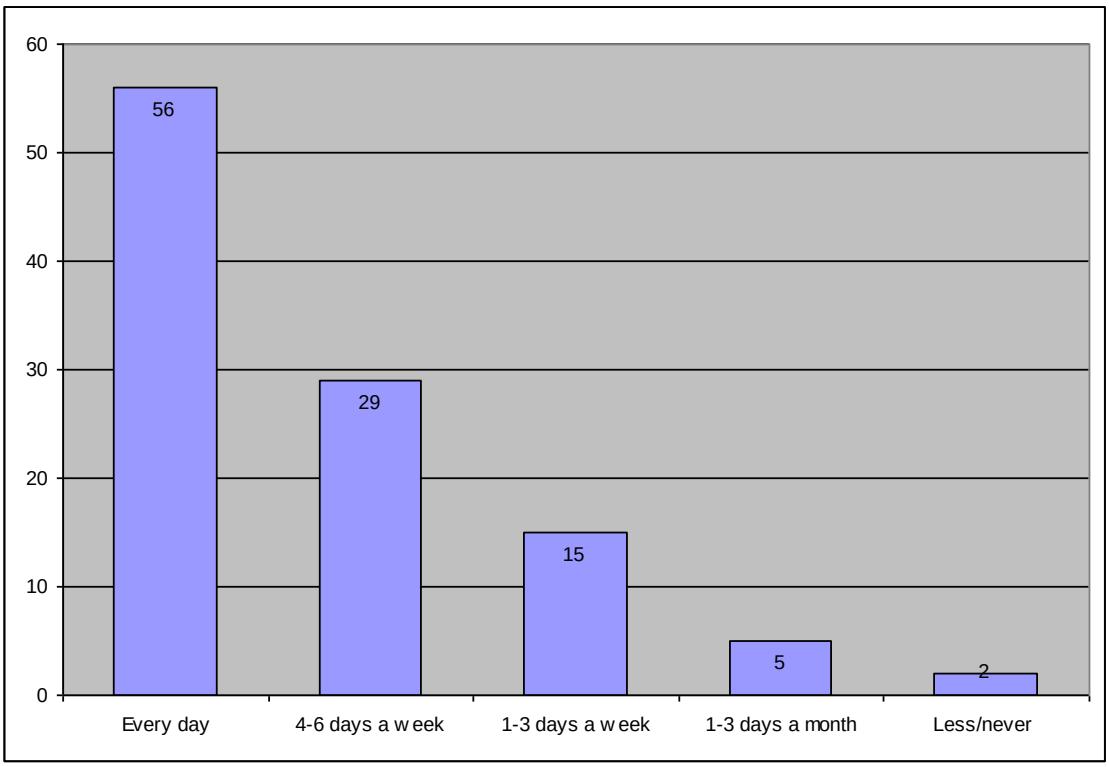

Figure 5.19 Chat frequency

The great majority chat regularly. There are 56 respondents who say they chat every day, that is 52% of those who use the Internet every day. A total of 100 respondents, 93%, chat online at least once a week, only two rarely or never chat online. The Internet is very clearly an important means of communication to the participants. Does this communication also represent opportunities for natural English use? The last question was whether the participants ever chat in English.

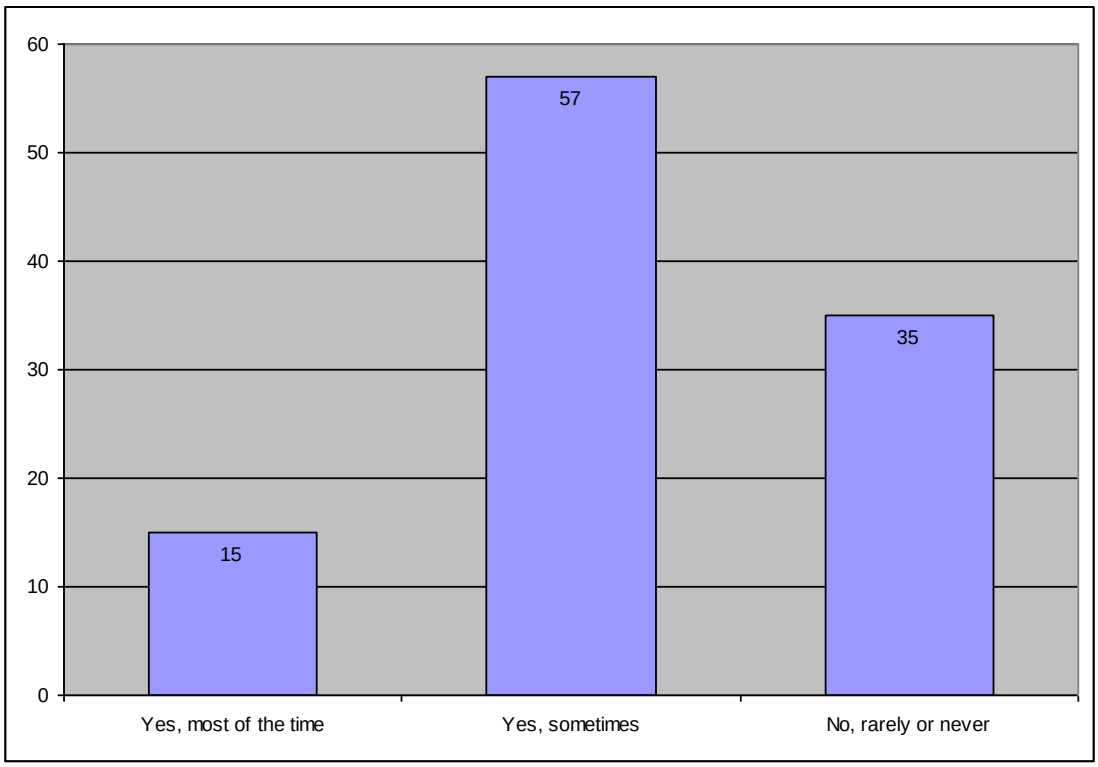

Figure 5.20 When you chat online, do you chat in English?

Similarly as with social websites, chat can be used as a means of communication both locally or globally. While 35 of the respondents rarely or never chat in English, 15 use English for chatting most of the time. Only five of these are in the group who claims English as a home language. The majority is those who use English for chat sometimes. Here we also find seven of the participants who claim English as a home language.

This means that more than half the participants, 53%, use at least two languages for live chat, one of which is English. English is being used for chatting by 67%. Thus the Internet is being used for communication in English; it is not only another source of exposure. However, the results are mixed: although almost all the participants use the Internet and communicate through it, many use it mainly for communication in Norwegian.

5.1.6 Attitudes and Learning a Global Lingua Franca

What relationship, if any, do these pupils have to the idea of English as a global language, used as a lingua franca between people who do not share a mother tongue? Does the fact that they learn English in school from a young age, combined with exposure and communication make them feel that they should be as fluent as native speakers? If we compare English to the foreign languages they learn in school, what are the differences?

The attitudes and opinions that the pupils have towards these questions may indicate something about the status of English in their lives, and whether the spread of English could be a factor in turning it into a second language for them. As mentioned in chapter 3, a language that is ubiquitous in your life is one you are likely to have an opinion about, and the attitudes a learner has towards a language may influence the learning process as well as the status of the language.

The following three questions were aimed to explore opinions about English as a lingua franca, through asking about the pupils' experiences with using English for communication.

The first question was whether the pupils thought it was just as easy to speak English with native speakers of English as with other people who do not speak it as a native tongue.

My assumption here was that if they did think it was just as easy, this could indicate a high level of fluency. Not agreeing could indicate, not necessarily a lower level of fluency, but perhaps an awareness of it being easier to speak English with other non-native speakers. This could be a difficult question to answer if the respondents did not have much experience of using English in different contexts.

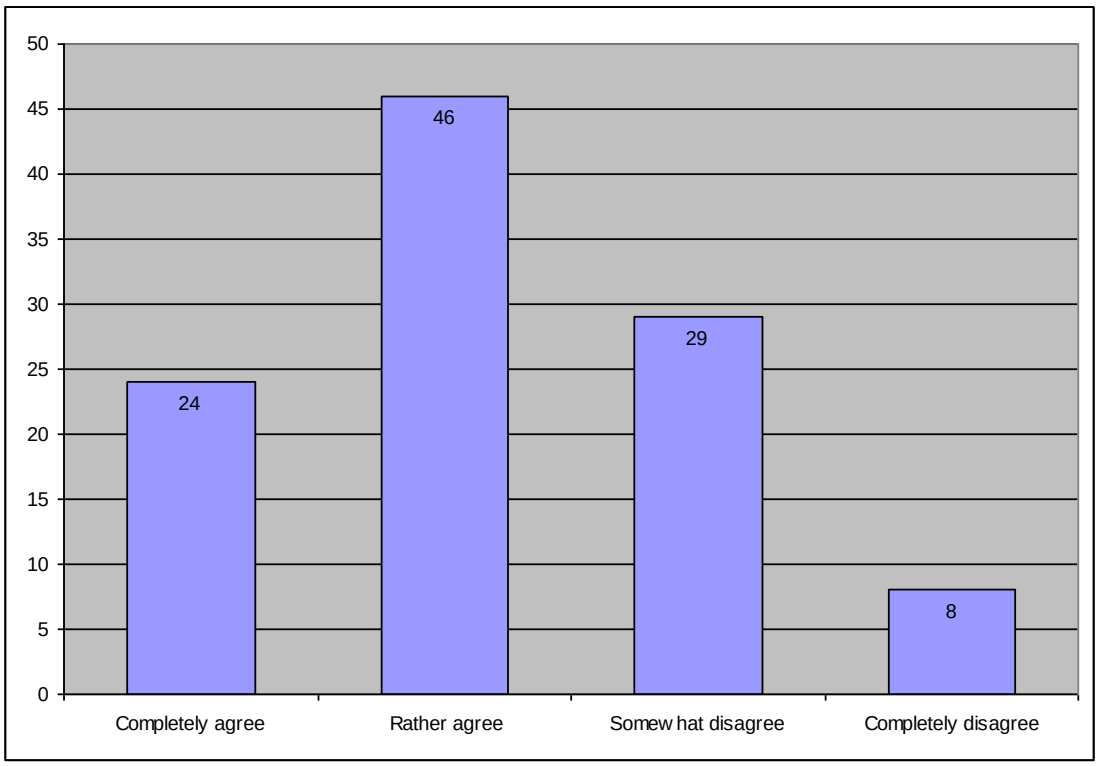

Figure 5.21 Communication with ENL speakers is easier than with ELF speakers.

The results show that 65% completely or rather agree that it is easy to speak English with native (ENL) speakers, while the remaining 35% somewhat or completely disagree; they think it is easier to speak with other non-native (ELF) speakers. It is possible that the majority group is also the group with the highest level of fluency; they have reached a level where they easily speak English with ENL speakers. Out of the 70 participants who completely or rather agree, we find 13 of the 14 English-speaking participants.

Experience may also be a factor. Some may think it is easier to understand ENL speakers because they have experience with speakers with accents very different from their own and thus difficult to understand. Others may have the opposite experience: that it is easier to understand those with a more limited vocabulary, for instance.

But what about the pupils' attitudes towards their own English production and accents in communication with others? I wanted to ask them if, when they speak English, they wanted to sound like a native speaker (e.g. American or British).

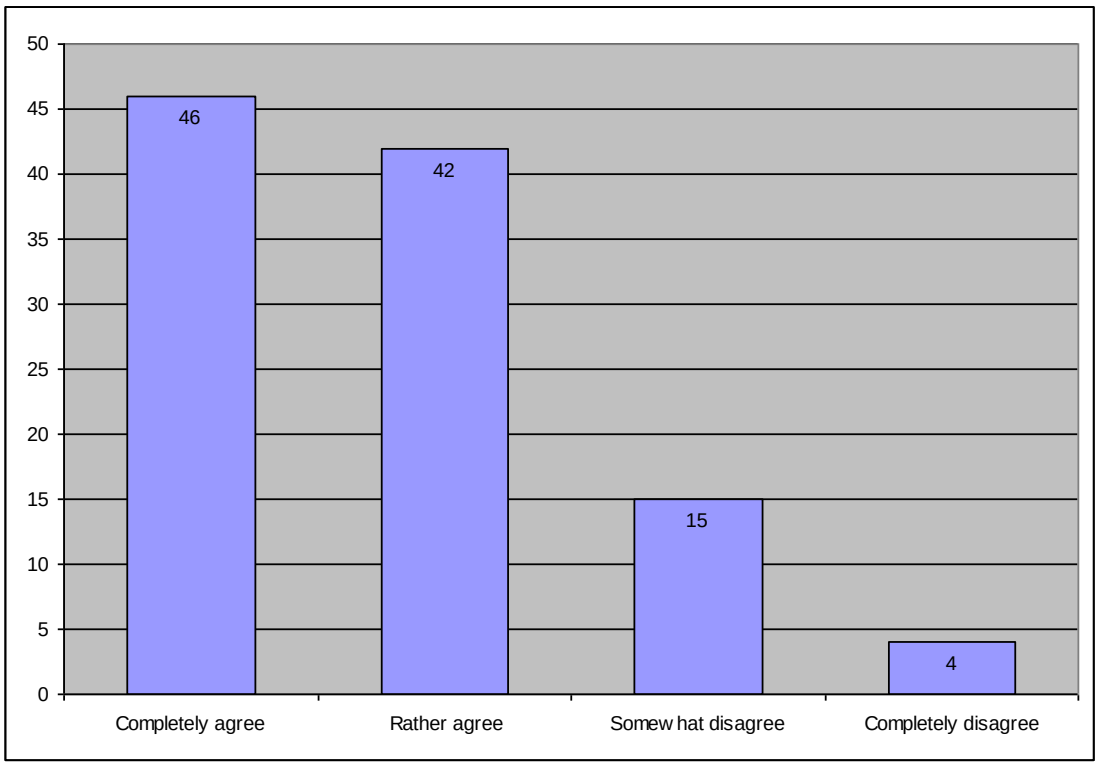

Figure 5.22 Want to sound like an ENL speaker.

What sort of English do these young Norwegians wish to speak? There is no such thing as a "Norwegian English" (recognized variety). A total of 88 pupils, or 82%, completely or somewhat agree that their goal is to achieve native-like pronunciation. I can only speculate to the reasons why 19 pupils somewhat or completely disagree. Perhaps they feel that the idea of sounding like a native English speaker is too far away to even consider as an option? Or maybe they like their Norwegian or "mid-Atlantic" accent. Could the globalization of English, that these pupils are taking part of, lead to more acceptance of the idea of speaking English with their own, distinctive accent?

Thus I also asked whether the pupils, when speaking English, thought it was nice if people hear that they have a Norwegian (or other) accent.

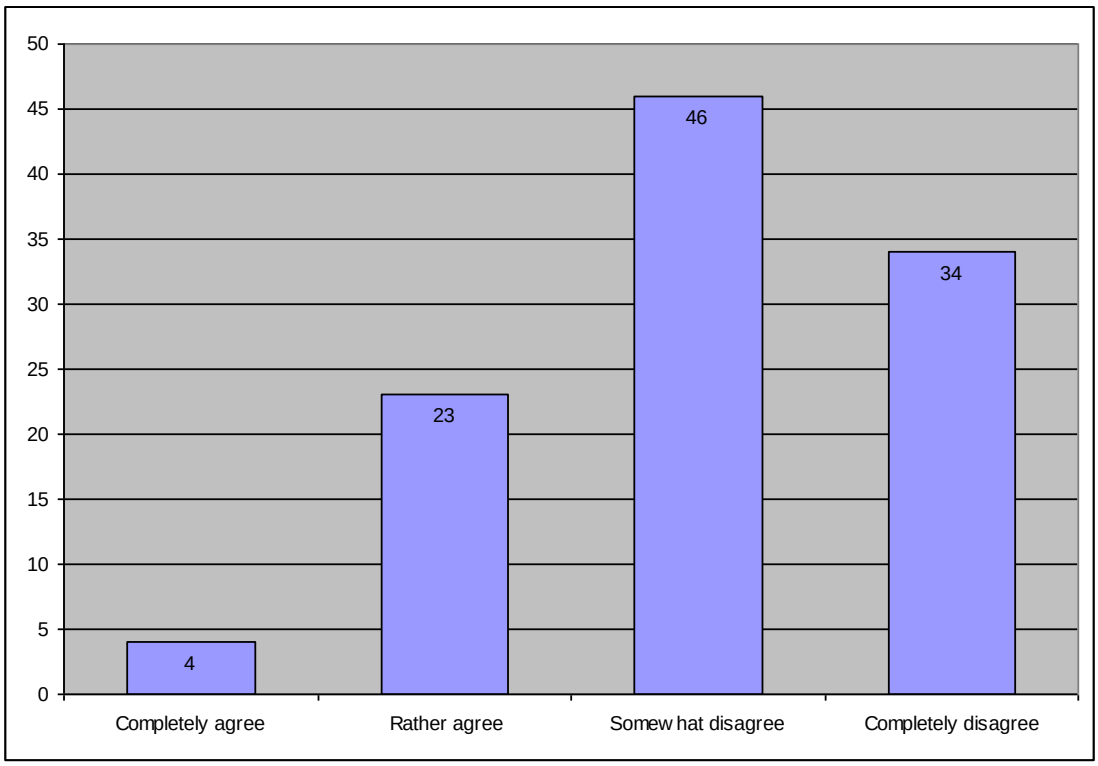

Figure 5.23 It is nice to have a foreign accent

The answers here are similar to the answers to the previous question: A total of 80 pupils, 74%, completely or somewhat disagree. They do not want to have a distinctive Norwegian accent when they speak English. However, the numbers do not completely match with the previous, or opposite, question. There are 27 respondents who say they do not mind having an accent, whereas only 19 said they did not care to sound like a native speaker. Also, while the largest group in the previous question was the one that "completely agreed" they wanted to sound like native speakers, the "completely disagree" here is notably smaller than the "somewhat disagree". This could be a question of pragmatics: even if they would prefer to sound like native speakers, they know that they might not, at least not yet.

But do they think that their English can improve, that they will continue to learn English? This could say something about the status of English if the participants see many opportunities for learning. I asked the participants to what degree they agreed with the statement "I think my English will get better and better".

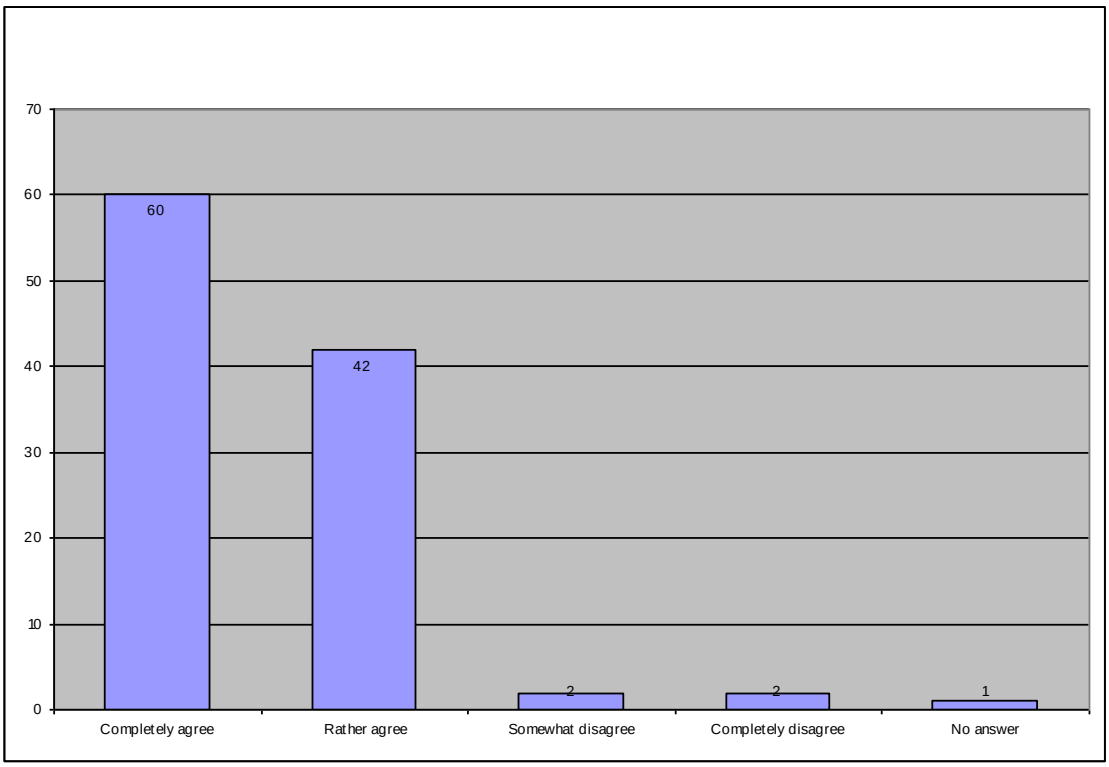

Figure 5.24 I think my English will get better and better

The answers to this question show that 95% completely or rather agree that they believe their English will continue to improve. These young pupils already receive a lot of English input both in their spare time and in school, and they will probably continue to do so. The next question opens up to their own ideas about how this improvement can happen, by asking them "if you do think your English is going to get better: how do you think this will mainly happen? For instance in school, by moving abroad, or can your English improve without studying it in school and without going abroad?"

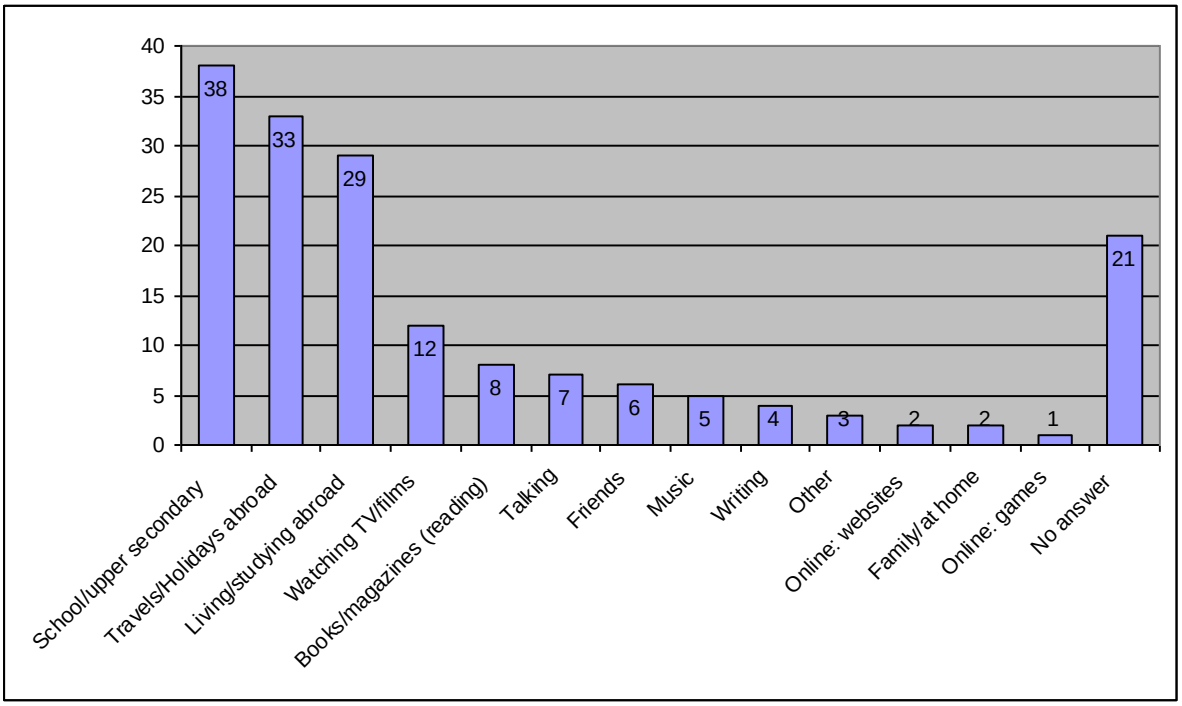

Figure 5.25 Where English can be improved.

This was an open question. Out of the 107, 21 participants did not give an answer; the remaining 86 gave 144 answers. The answers were quite diverse, which is why I have made 13 categories. There could have been fewer for an easier comparison with the answers presented in Figure 5.7 Where English is mostly learned outside of school., where the participants explain where they have learned English up until now. But I prefer a more qualitative approach here to make sure all the participants' ideas are presented.

School was the most popular option for improvement of English here. Several participants mention that they will probably learn more now that they start upper secondary school, the thought of which was probably quite prominent in their minds at the time of the survey, performed just a short time away from their finishing lower secondary school.

If we combine travels and living abroad, the most popular option was in fact going abroad, with 62 respondents in total. This means that more than half, 53% of those who answered think that they will go abroad and thereby improve their English. In the figure I decided to distinguish between those who said they wanted to live abroad and those who said they would travel, because the respondents were quite clear about this distinction in their answers and many had quite concrete plans. Participant 9 says, for instance: "Because I dream of moving to London, and I want to live there permanently". While participant 79 is

planning to travel, but not to move: “School, + I’m going to the USA and England for summer holidays”. Participant 33 distinguishes between the different kinds of travel, writing “By traveling and living/studying abroad”.

Going abroad, whether it be for holidays or studying, and going to upper secondary school are then clearly the most popular options amongst the participants. We must be aware though that these were also the only two options listed as examples in the question and would therefore be present in the minds of the participants. One even writes “All the possibilities listed but by studying in other countries”. Most of the other categories could also be present in their minds considering that they had already been mentioned in other questions in the questionnaire.

I have included “talking” and “writing” as categories here. They only got 11 tokens between them, but these did not really fit into any other categories. One participant writes: “talking a lot with people around me” (47), another writes “using English more in everyday life” (32), and a third “because I speak and write in English a lot” (100). Participant 94 offers this thorough explanation: “I write quite a bit in English to practice the language, simply because I know I am going to need it – I would really like to go to an English-speaking country and study the language”.

The media is not a particularly popular option here, TV or films have been mentioned by 12 participants, music by 5, and the Internet by 3. The situation is opposite from the one depicted in Figure 5.7, which shows where they have learned English up until now. There the media is more frequent and going abroad less frequent. As I already mentioned, the media was not mentioned as an example in the question, and therefore perhaps has not been considered as valid an option by the participants. Some answers, however, imply communicative use of the Internet without spelling it out. Two participants mention that their English will continue to improve if they stay in touch with their relatives and friends in Pakistan and Australia respectively. They do not mention exactly how they will stay in touch, and therefore their answers have not been coded as to mean Internet use. It is quite likely that this is involved though, considering that it is really the only cheap and quick way of frequent communication with someone on the other side of the world.

Three answers have been coded as “other”. Participant 48 is the only one who mentions getting a job abroad. Participant 74 writes: “I think I will learn English better

because English affects us more and more in all sorts of ways". And participant 89 says "seeing that most of today's technology is in English".

Among the 86 who answered this question, there was no one who did not think their English could improve, or who could not think of any ways in which this could happen. Not only do they then assume their English will improve over time; they also have clear ideas as to how this will happen.

Although it is already clear that most of the pupils think they will continue to improve their English and have many ideas as to how this can happen, there is still a possibility that they feel they have already reached a satisfactory level and do not really feel a need to learn more. They could be experiencing that they have already reached a high level of fluency and therefore do not need to improve their English, or they could feel a need to learn more English. This need could come from the awareness of English as an important communication language. Attitudes towards a language and learning could affect the learning process itself, as mentioned in chapter 3. I asked the participants to what degree they agreed with the statement "I don't need to learn more English than I already know".

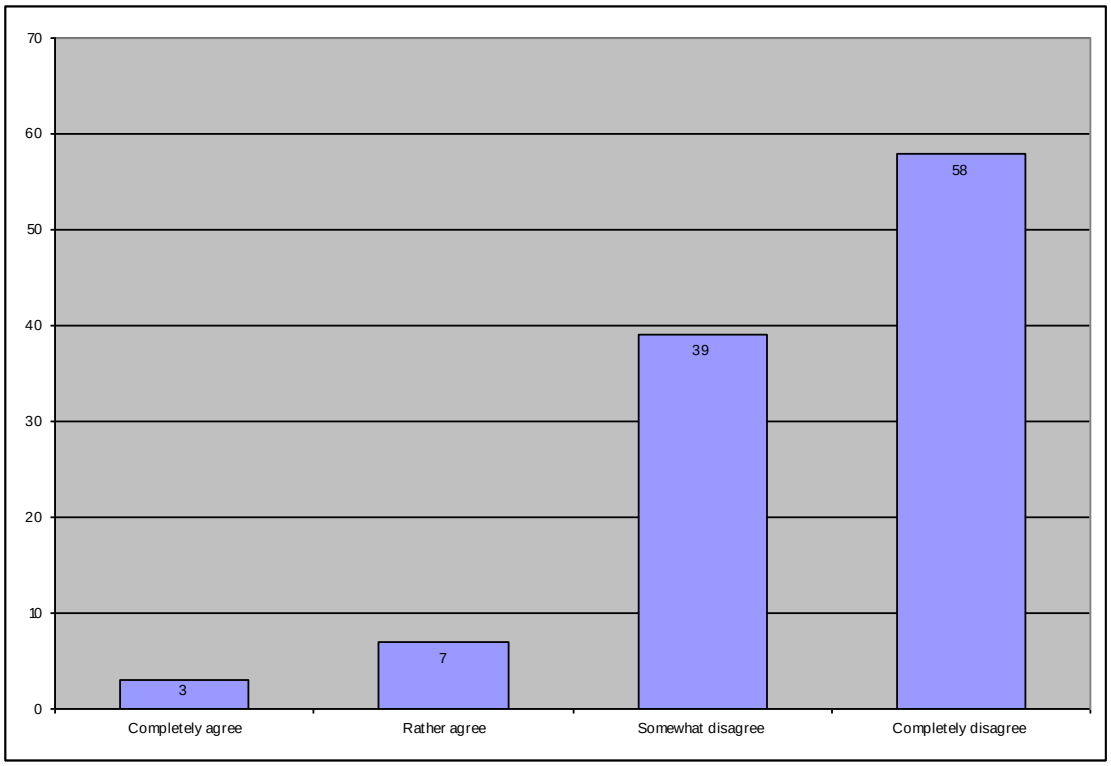

Figure 5.26 I don't need to learn more English

It is clearly not the case that they do not feel the need to learn more English; 90% somewhat or completely disagree. They do feel a need to learn more. Does this also mean that they *want* to learn more? I included the next question, if they would like to know more English than what they know now, because I wanted to see if they would still want to learn more even if they did not feel they needed to.

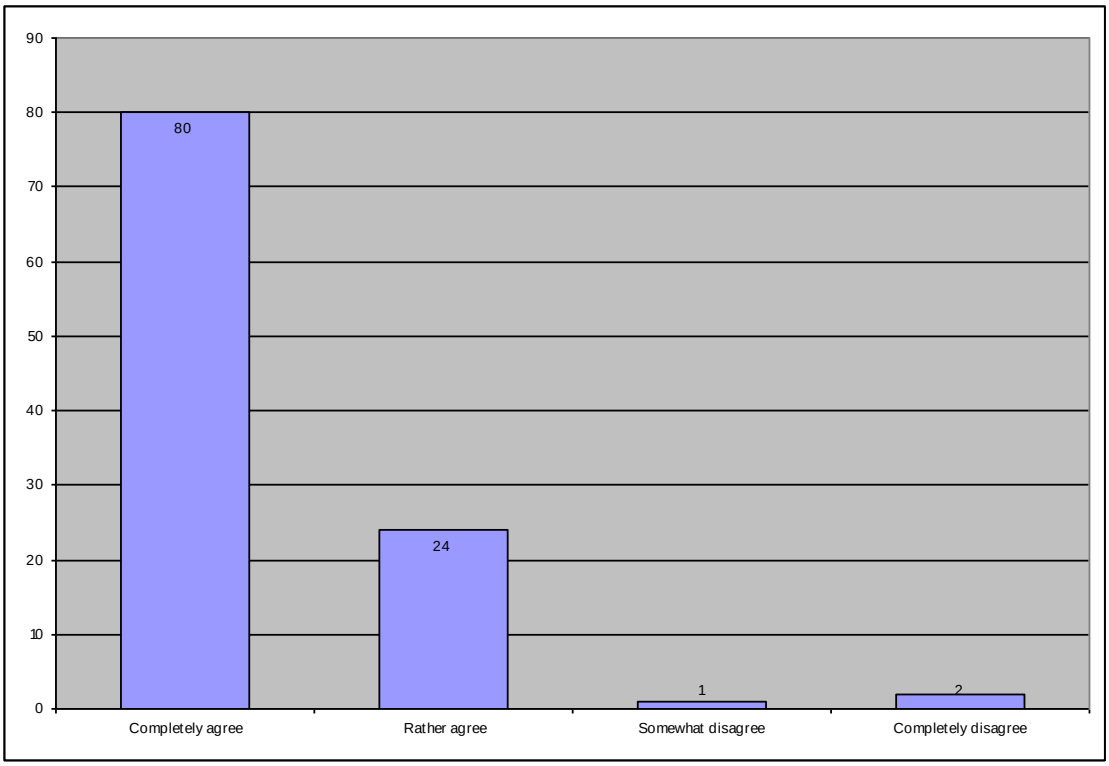

Figure 5.27 I would like to learn more English than what I know now

These numbers are even clearer: 97% completely or rather agree, and most completely agree. This means that even among the 10 respondents who said they did not need to learn more, there are still some who would like to learn more. The next step is to see if it is actually important to learn more, and why. It could be that the participants just wanted to improve their English for the sake of English itself, or for English class, and that it did not really matter in their daily lives or to their futures whether or not they improved. First, I asked how important it was to them to know English.

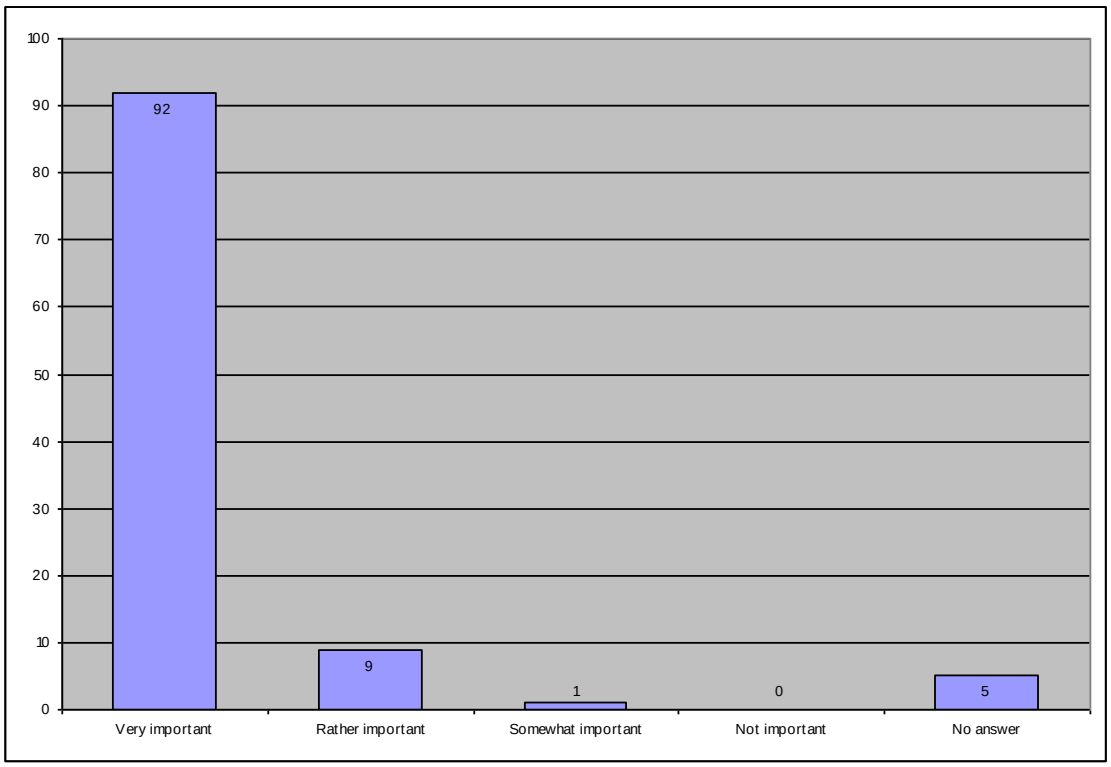

Figure 5.28 Importance of knowing English.

In general, it is important to the respondents to know English. To 92 respondents it is very important, and not a single one says it is not important. 5 respondents give no answer. This question was on the last page of the questionnaire, where 4 of these respondents did not write anything at all. It is possible that they felt they had run out of time or were tired of answering, or overlooked the page.

Then, I asked *why* it was important to them to know English, specifically, what they would use their skills for: "What uses do you think you will apply your knowledge of English to? /what are the main reason(s) for you to (want to) know English?" Here they were given specific options, to make sure everyone had the same options in mind and could decide for or against each one. They were also asked to tick all appropriate boxes. The options are shown in the table.

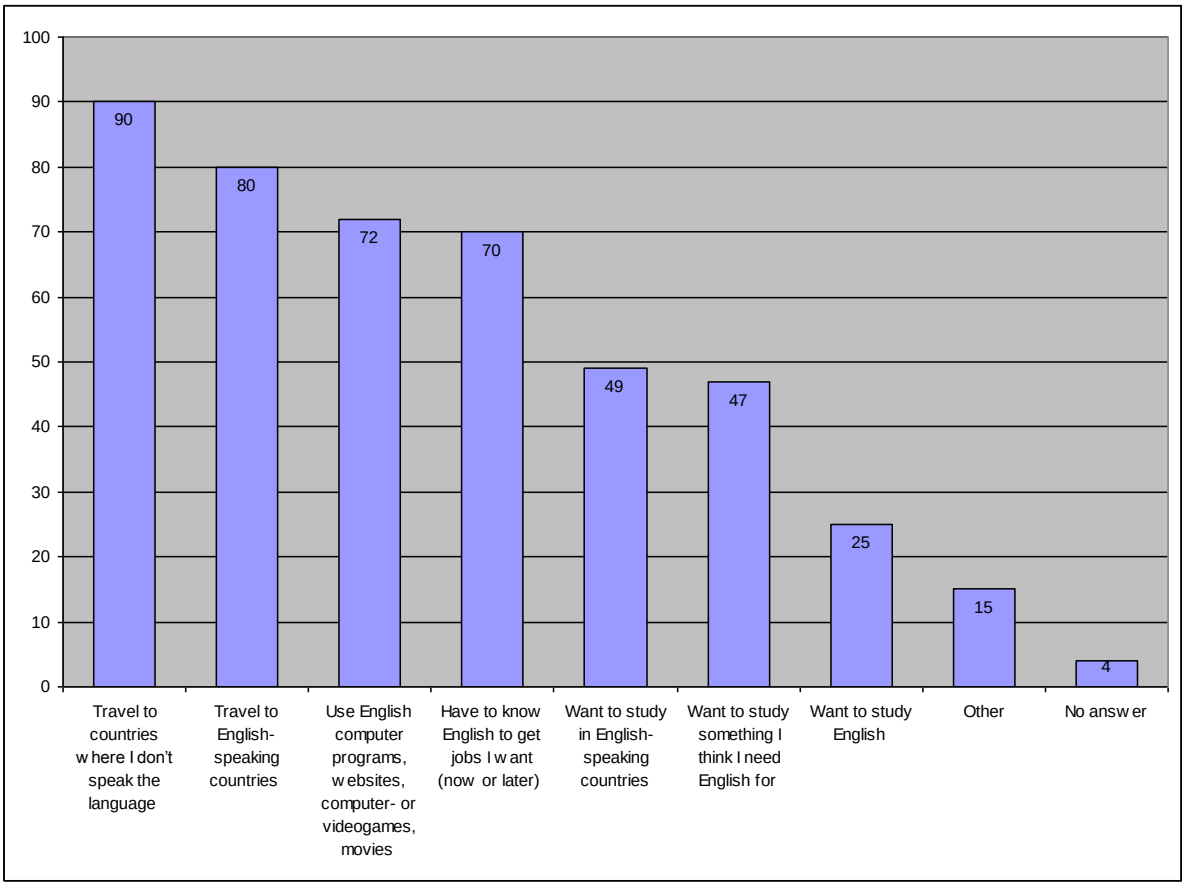

Figure 5.29 What English skills will be used for

Here the participants could tick as many boxes as they wanted, and there was also the option of specifying another reason than the seven provided. The option that most participants ticked off was "Travel to other countries where I don't speak the language", which was ticked by 90 out of the 103 that answered, or 87%.This is closely followed by "Travel to the US/ England/ other English-speaking countries", with 78%. Traveling abroad then seems to be the main reason for these participants to need to know English.

The two "travel" options were also the first two options. There is of course a possibility that these two were more popular simply because they were first, but I do not think this is the case. The 103 participants who answered ticked off an average of 4,3 boxes. Very few ticked off all seven. The two options that were third and fourth in popularity were last and second to last in the list of options.

In third place, with 72 participants, is "Be able to use English computer programs and websites, computer or videogames, watch English-speaking movies". This ability is something they may have need for in their daily life in Norway, and does not necessarily

relate to future plans. However, it can also be seen in relation to the three next bars in the chart, where many participants say that they need to use English in the future, for work and studies. Having to know English for work was the fourth most important reason to know English, with 70 participants ticking it off.

"Studying English" has also been included, and 25 participants say they want to do this. I wanted to include this option to see if more students thought they would need English for studies and work than only those who want to study English. This proves to be true, there are many more who want to study in English-speaking countries or think they need English for their studies than there are future English students.

15 participants tick the "other" box, and 11 of them specify other uses or reasons:

Participant 71: communication with English speakers

Participant 61: Talk to relatives

Participant 51: Who knows. Everything!

Participant 49: Talk to foreign people those who don't know Norwegian for instance

Participant 34: I need English for everything…

Participant 32: You might need English at any time, it is always useful to be able to communicate with people from other countries.

Participant 29: Chatting with friends from other countries.

Participant 21: Nicer language with much more words, want to move out of Norway

Participant 16: Xbox live [computer game with live chat]

Participant 15: Maybe move to the US

Participant 9: Talk to family

Except for participant 21 and 15, who specify that they do not only want to travel to another country but to live in another country, I think that all the others fit into a category I did not include as an option: Communication. These participants need English for communication even if they do not leave Norway, for instance for online chatting (29 and 16). Participants 51 and 34 say that they need English for "everything", and participant 32 specifies that you might need English at any time. Like 71 and 49, this participant sees the possible need for talking to foreigners in Norway.

The last table in the section about attitudes presents the answers to an open question, which asked the pupils to compare their experience of learning English with their experience of learning other languages in school. I wanted to see if the pupils' experiences as language

learners could tell us about the status of English in their lives compared to other foreign languages, and asked for their thoughts around this statement: “Studying English in school and studying another foreign language (such as French or German) is approximately just as easy or hard”.

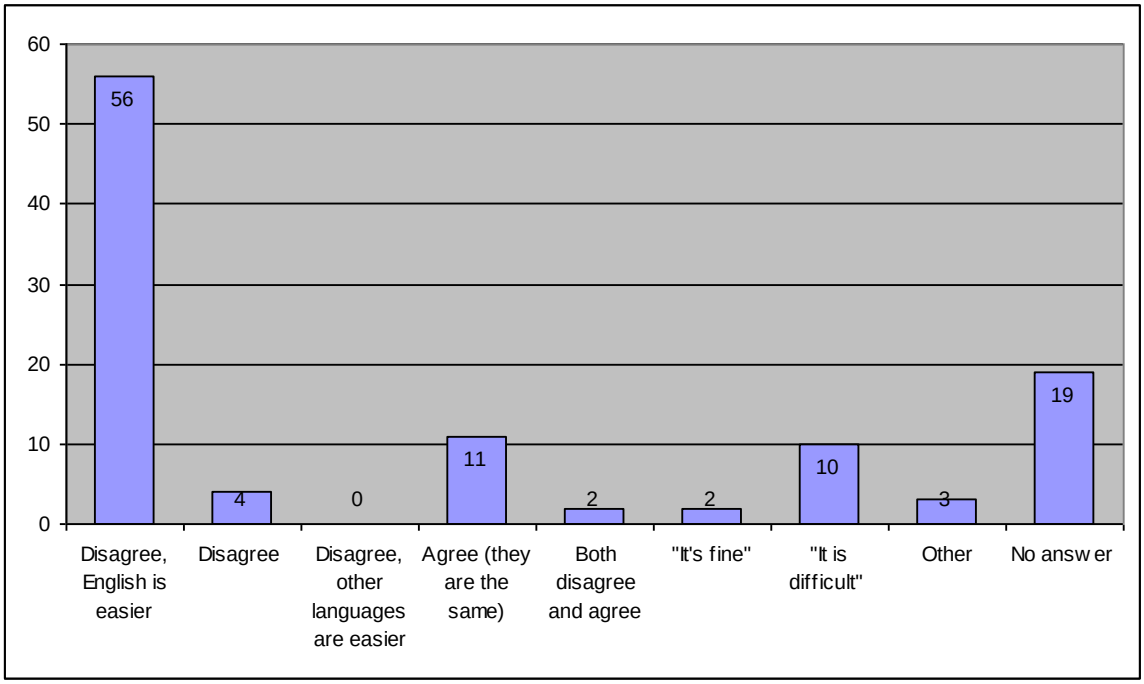

Figure 5.30 The relative ease of studying English and other languages in school

This was the open question with the answers that were perhaps the most challenging to code into categories. The majority have explained clearly what their opinion is on the subject though, and 53% say they disagree with the statement. They do not think that studying English and studying other foreign languages is equally easy. Four respondents do not give further explanations, while 56 make it clear that they think English is easier or the other languages more difficult.

Several participants explain that this is because of the great exposure to English, such as participant 107: “French and German are much harder than English, because you hear much more of English, and I definitely use English a lot”, or participant 101: “It is much easier to learn English than a foreign language considering that English is used so much for instance on TV, music and in other countries”.

Hearing English in the media is mentioned by several participants, and so is the aspect that they have been learning English in school from a much younger age than the other languages. The aspect of English as an international language is also mentioned as a

source of learning by a few participants, such as participant 9, who says “I think English is easier. This is both because I have English ancestry and because English is an incredibly global language”, and participant 48, “You hear English everywhere and it is an international language. So I quite disagree with the statement”.

Some also express their different attitudes towards the languages, such as participant 15: “English is a fun language. They use it in most countries. While the other foreign languages are unnecessary”. Participant 8 says that “Foreign languages are nonsense, it should be optional. While it is great that we have English”. Participant 6 expresses more or less the same sentiment: “No, English is much easier to understand. I understand that you have to learn English, but not French or German”.

There are no participants who say it is easier to study French, German, or Spanish than English.

11 participants agree with the statement, which should mean they think studying English is neither easier nor more difficult than the other languages. Only two of these give a further explanation. Participant 51 says “It’s just as difficult, really difficult”, while participant 81 says: “I kind of agree because they expect more when you speak English, but you have to learn everything from scratch if you learn French and German”.

This last idea seems to also be what the 2 participants that state that they both agree and disagree are thinking about. Participant 96 says that “I both disagree and agree. I have been hearing English for as long as I can remember, but I have only been learning German since the 8th grade”. Although she does not explain further why she both disagrees and agrees, it seems to me that there must be something about studying German that makes it easy even if she has only been studying it for three years. I think it is the same aspect that was mentioned by participant 81 above, as well as by participant 74, who says: “Both yes and no. English will be easier because you have had it for more time than the chosen foreign language, but at the same time you go deeper into the subject and more is expected”. These participants then seem to have a closer relationship with the English language than with the other languages they are being taught in school, but at the same time they think that it can be easier to learn something from scratch, without the expectations of a high level that are apparently present when they study English.

Two participants write something along the lines of “it’s fine”, which could mean that they agree with the statement.

Ten participants have written something along the lines of "it is (really) difficult" without giving further explanations. It is possible that they think all language classes are really difficult, like participant 51 above, and a few other participants who say that English is a bit easier, but that language class in general is hard. It could also be that they think that the difficulty lies in studying several languages at a time. Two participants mention this difficulty as their reason for disagreeing with the statement.

Three answers have been coded as "other". Participant 49 says "It is between easy and difficult", which also resembles an answer to a question about language class in general. Participant 33 says "I can't answer that, I have English specialization :D [smiley]". She has not attempted to study a foreign language, but chosen to study more English instead, and seems quite happy about it. Participant 88 writes: "English is something I could speak in my daily life". It is not really an answer to the question about school subjects, but indicates the attitude of the participant towards the language in general.

In the question, I used the phrasing "English and another foreign language". One comment on this comes from participant 63, who disagrees with the statement, writing "I don't think of English as a foreign language, because I think it is a given. I don't think that with German or French".

When discussing the status of English in these young pupils' lives, it is important to consider its status compared to the other foreign languages. Here we have seen that this status is quite different for many pupils. English is not just another foreign language to them, but is distinguished somehow. We have also seen that many pupils have a positive attitude towards the English language and see it as important in their lives.

5.2 Discussion of Findings

In this section I discuss the hypothesis by drawing upon relevant findings to all the research questions. As in the previous section, the discussion is presented under various headings based on the research questions, but in the discussion the findings must be seen as a whole. After discussing the five research questions in the five first sections, I consider other relevant findings that I had not considered in the research questions in section 5.2.6. Then in the last section of this chapter, section 5.2.7, I ask: Is English a foreign language in Norway?

In chapter 6, the last chapter, concluding remarks are offered.

5.2.1 Participation in Natural Communication

The first criterion in deciding if a language can be considered a second language is if it is spoken in the immediate environment of the learner, that is, if spoken input is provided. According to Krashen (section 2.1.1), comprehensible input is the most important path to language acquisition. In Norway, learners do not experience input of English in the same way that traditional second language learners in English-speaking countries do. However, the Norwegian learners in my study experience various forms of English input to a great extent, as will be discussed further below in section 5.2.3.

The next criterion in deciding whether a language can be considered a second language is that there be opportunities for participation in natural communication situations, which, according to Ringbom (section 2.1.1), is an equally important factor as input. In the same way as with input, learners of English in Norway are not traditional second language learners because English is not the main language for communication in their society. But they may still have opportunities for participation in natural communication in English.

I think it is crucial to consider the following two aspects of the question of whether the language is being used in natural communication situations: What are natural communication situations, and what kinds of language use are included?

In section 5.1.2, I found that 45% of the participants said they often use English in their daily lives, for speaking or writing. The answers here were more mixed than the answers about input, as the majority, 55%, somewhat or completely disagreed that they use English frequently. Also, the largest groups here were the "in-betweens", those who somewhat disagreed or rather agreed. This means fewer convincing conclusions one way or the other. This tendency of being "in between" is seen again in a more concrete question about communication in English; namely if the participants ever used English for live chat online. Live chat may provide opportunities for participation in natural communication. This is further discussed in section 5.2.4.

I also found that 80% of the participants said they often use English words and expressions when they speak Norwegian (or other native tongue). A great majority, 82%, say they think it is easy to speak English when they go abroad. Here they do not have the opportunity to use Norwegian. Going on holiday or living abroad also opens up to participation in natural communication in English, often with other non-native speakers.

A language can be more like a second language than a foreign language when there are good opportunities for communication in it. The learners in my study participate in various kinds of communication situations where they use English.

My argument is that the media must be considered an important source of spoken input. The media provide enough input of many different kinds to make many learners feel they learn from it.

5.2.2 The Role of Classroom Teaching

What can the role of formal language instruction tell us about the status of a language? "The second language learner […]is exposed to a rich and varied input[…]and if he has formal teaching it is of secondary importance" (Ringbom 1987: 27). Ringbom says that second language acquisition happens through rich, varied and unstructured input, whereas the foreign language learner "is exposed to a very limited quantity of highly structured, selected and sequenced input" (1987: 27). This input is usually only provided in the context of classroom lessons. Generally, there is extensive classroom teaching of English in Norway, but this does not have to mean that this teaching is the main source of contact with English. Is this teaching then of "secondary importance"?

In Norway, children learn English in school from an early age. Tenth graders have usually studied English for ten years and a foreign language for three years. When asked about the differences between studying English and studying other languages (Figure 5.30), several respondents said that English was easier because they had been learning it in school for so long. One participant said: "We have had English longer, and it can therefore not be compared to a language we have had for only 3 years" (participant 3).

60% of the participants completely or rather agree that they have learned most of the English they know in school (Figure 5.5). As it stands, only 16 pupils completely agree while 11 completely disagree. This means that the schooling they do receive in English is an important source of learning, and for some it is the most important one. We can definitely say that language acquisition is supplemented by classroom teaching. But is it the main source of contact with the language?

Although many students do feel that they have learned a lot of the English they know in school, a majority also says that what they are studying in English class is already familiar

to them (Figure 5.6). As mentioned, it could be that the language is familiar to them due to lengthy instruction, and that they are applying the linguistic skills they already possess to new subject matter, thereby maintaining the feeling that they are in fact using "old" knowledge. (In foreign language class, it is more likely that both the linguistic aspect and the topic for each class are felt to be new every time.) Also, it is possible that the contact they have with English outside the classroom provides them with linguistic knowledge and skill that they have use for in class, thus making English class a place for applying the skills they have already gained in other situations. There are many other situations outside of the classroom that the participants consider important for learning, as seen in Figure 5.7.

5.2.3 Practicing Receptive Skills through the Mass Media

As seen in the definition of foreign language learning in section 2.1.1, the mass media may provide opportunities for practicing receptive skills in a foreign language learning situation. This practice would then be a supplement to classroom teaching.

What I am hypothesizing is that the great amount of exposure to English in Norway might mean that it influences the learners to such an extent that it cannot necessarily be seen solely as a supplement.

Turning to the findings on the actual amount of input the participants receive (section 5.1.4), it is clear that English is a great presence in their everyday lives. This is especially so in the cases of music and television, through which the majority hears English every day. Figure 5.9 shows that 94 out of 107 participants hear English through music every day, and only 2 participants rarely or never hear music in English.

My findings show that while music is the most frequently used source of *spoken* English input, the Internet follows close behind. Figure 5.9 shows that 66 out of 107 participants hear English on the Internet every day, and 102 out of 107 hear English on the Internet every week.

The Internet is the most frequently used source of *written* English input. This finding points towards a shift: When investigating input of written English, new technology must also be considered. The mass media do not only provide spoken input; and books or magazines are not necessarily the most important sources of exposure to written English. Sundqvist (2009) (section 2.3.2) found that reading books, newspapers or magazines in English was not a frequent source of contact with English for the participants in her study. Internet use was a more frequent source of contact with English, but since her study did not go deeper into what the Internet is used for, we cannot know to what degree it was also a source of written input for her participants.

This is why it is important to look at how the Internet is used in order to discuss to which degree it might provide input and opportunities for output. In my study, I found that a great majority of the participants use the Internet every day (Figure 5.15). In the case of the Internet, it can be a bit more complicated to tell just how much input of English is received, because of the great variety in possible usages of Internet technology. English is the

“original” language of computers and the Internet, and is still ubiquitous, but a great many websites as well as software now exist in Norwegian (among many other) language versions. This means that using computers and the Internet will often mean some exposure to English, but it is increasingly possible to use the Internet in other languages, without having to use English. As seen above, the participants hear and read English on the Internet frequently. However, a majority choose the Norwegian language version for their preferred social websites (Figure 5.18).

When it comes to the learning potential of the presence of English, Figure 5.7 shows that sources of contact with English that the participants consider important for learning abound. Especially the media and travels abroad are mentioned by many students as important sources of learning. Among the media; TV, films, and music receive the most tokens. These media mainly provide spoken input and do not normally give opportunities for output. Travels abroad provide more opportunities for communication, but are not as easily available as TV and music. It is possible that only the 27 respondents who mention going abroad as an important source of learning have actually been abroad. This still makes traveling abroad a source of contact with English, but not to a majority of the participants.

The mass media then do provide opportunities for practicing receptive skills in English. In itself, this does not have to be an indication that English is becoming more like a second than a foreign language for those who make use of these opportunities, but the great amount of this input could still be an indication of this. Also, the mass media may provide opportunities for practicing communicative skills as well as receptive skills, as we shall see below.

5.2.4 Practicing Communicative Skills through the Mass Media

This is really where my project goes a step further from similar studies, in which technology and new media may not be considered a source for practicing communicative skills. When investigating English use outside of school and especially the role of the media, we cannot consider the media only as a source of exposure. As shown in section 2.3.2, the Internet has been considered a source of exposure to English in previous studies, but it has not been considered an important opportunity for communication in its own right.

I think the media must be included in the question of communication. The Internet especially is increasingly becoming a means of communication, and it is changing the ways in which young people communicate. They are provided with more opportunities for more kinds of communication, they can communicate with a great number of people all over the world, and they can do so basically for free.

I hypothesized that new technology is an important factor in turning English into a second language in Norway. My findings show that these young people are active Internet users, and they use the Internet to a great degree for communication. The Internet provides new ways of communicating within personal networks of family and friends. It also opens up to the expansion of these personal networks, because it is easier to be in contact with more people. Social websites with communication as their main purpose are in use by 106 out of 107 participants (Figure 5.17), and 100 out of 107 participate in live chat online at least once a week (Figure 5.19).

As seen in Figure 5.20, the majority used English for chat sometimes. This is a new kind of communication situation, which must be considered an opportunity for natural language use, or a source of *output*. In earlier studies on language and media use, such as Berns, Hasebrink and de Bot (2007) (see section 2.3.2), contact with English through the media is considered a matter of exposure, whereas communication happens within "personal networks", normally family and friends, or when traveling abroad.

This shows that when investigating the role of the media and especially the Internet, it is important to consider the various possible usages of the Internet that may influence language learning. If we do not consider that media use can lead to different kinds of exposure as well as opportunities for language use, we may miss out on influential sources of language learning.

5.2.5 Attitudes and Learning a Global Lingua Franca

I hypothesized that the emergence of English as a world language had ramifications for the status of English in Norway, namely, that it could lead to English being closer to a second language than a foreign language in Norway. English is increasingly the language of choice between speakers from different linguacultural backgrounds, and English as a lingua franca is emerging as a variety in its own right.

English is ubiquitous in the lives of the young learners in Norway. They are used to seeing and hearing it in the media, and to use it in communication with others. My findings show that many participants use English as a tool for communication, when they travel abroad, or talk to people who do not speak Norwegian, whether it be "live" or online. English can be used for communication with both those who speak it as a native language and those who do not.

In section 2.3.2, we saw that Bonnet (2004) described the Norwegian pupils' attitude towards learning English thus: "The Norwegian pupils have a positive attitude towards English, and they are motivated to learn it. Their motivations are the following, "to communicate abroad, to understand English TV, films and song lyrics better, and to make better use of computers and the Internet"." (2004: 146). The Norwegian pupils experience the presence of English in their daily lives, and this affects their attitude towards English positively.

In my study, I found positive attitudes towards learning English as well. As seen in Figure 5.28, 94% of the participants thought it was very or rather important to know English. The participants also wish to learn more English, as seen in Figure 5.27, and feel a need for it, as Figure 5.26 shows. Their motivations for learning English are similar to those Bonnet (2004) found. Figure 5.29 shows that traveling abroad, use of media and technology, and finding work are important motivations for the Norwegian pupils in my study. It seems that many students are quite internationally-minded in that they expect to need English for travel, work and studies. There were many pupils who answered that they needed to know English for traveling to countries where they did not speak the language, in fact, this was the most popular option with 90 pupils ticking it off. This might relate to the status of English as a world language in that pupils expect to be able to communicate in English in many places, not only in English-speaking countries. Even if the participants might be using English to communicate with other non-native speakers, the majority would prefer to have a native-like accent, as shown in figures Figure 5.22 and Figure 5.23. Perhaps they think others will understand them better if they have a native-like accent, seeing as 65% think it is just as easy to understand a native as a non-native speaker of English (Figure 5.21).

When comparing the study of English to the study of foreign languages is school, as seen in Figure 5.30, the omnipresence of English seems to be a factor in determining the learners' attitudes. Many think English is easier because of its ubiquity, while other foreign

languages that they do not receive exposure in are harder. Others think English is more difficult because they are expected to perform better in it. Either way it is a part of their daily lives in a way that the foreign languages do not come close to.

It is just this daily presence that might go against the view of English as a foreign language. Massive amounts of comprehensible input lead to subconscious acquisition of the language, and this learning is supplied by classroom teaching which may also lead to conscious knowledge of the rules of the language. This gives English a special status for the learners compared to the foreign languages, where they have to learn the rules of the language "from scratch" without having their own automatized knowledge to fall back on.

5.2.6 Traveling as a Natural Communication Situation

In my hypothesis and research questions, I did not include the factor of traveling abroad as a possible influence on the status of English in the lives of the participants. For comparison, it was still included in the survey, specifically in the question of what situations they thought they would need English skills for. This question focused on the future, but I have found that traveling is also an important factor as a source of learning for several participants. In all three open questions in the survey; about where they feel they have picked up most of their English, how they think they will improve their English in the future, and where they will have the most use for their English skills; travels abroad rate high.

Traveling in general clearly provides opportunities for participation in natural communication situations. With English functioning as a lingua franca in many countries, as well as a native language in several popular tourist destinations, a great amount of communication when abroad will be done in English.

As seen in section 2.2.3, international travel is one of the factors that affects the status of English as a lingua franca. Research on whether traveling is a factor in affecting the status of English for Norwegian pupils is inconclusive. Lambine (2005), see section 2.3.2, left out the answers to her survey question about traveling abroad as a factor of improvement of English skills "due to the fact that the students did not have much experience when it came to going abroad" (Lambine 2005: 69f). Ibsen (2004), in the discussion of the Norwegian results of the international study by Bonnet (2004), see section 2.3.2, notes that the Norwegian pupils score the highest of the eight countries when it comes to contact with

English when traveling abroad (Ibsen 2004: 44). In my study, see Figure 5.7, 27 pupils claim traveling as an important source of learning English. This leaves 80 participants who do not mention traveling, and it is possible that these do not have experience with traveling abroad, like Lambine's participants. Again, results are mixed. Those who do travel may receive considerable input and consider traveling an important source of learning, but many pupils might not travel.

5.2.7 Is English a Foreign Language in Norway?

What can the presence of English in the lives of these young learners tell us about the status of English?

As we have seen in section 2.1, the question of *whether a language is spoken in the language learner's immediate environment* represents a traditional way to determine if the learner is learning a second or a foreign language. If the language is spoken in her immediate environment, it is an indication that it is a second language which can be acquired through comprehensible input. If the learner grows up with great amount of input from two languages from an early age, for instance one from each parent, they may even both be considered native languages. If there is no input of English in the learner's immediate environment, English may be considered a foreign language.

Figure 5.1 shows that only 13% of the participants use English at home, and the majority of these use it in combination with other languages. This means that the majority of the participants do not grow up in a classic *bilingual* setting, where English and Norwegian are both learned as native languages.

I think it is necessary to go a bit deeper into the definitions here, and ask: What does it mean that the language must be spoken in the immediate environment of the learner? It must mean that the language is spoken enough for the learner to receive comprehensible input. As seen in section 2.1.1, receiving comprehensible input is the most important path to language acquisition.

If we say that language is acquired through comprehensible input, we must consider all the different sources of input that the learners receive. The role of the media cannot be ignored here. All the studies presented in section 2.3.2 have found that different media environments affect the learners' language acquisition. The 1306 Norwegian tenth graders

who participated in Bonnet's (2004) study (see section 2.3.2) felt that they had learned an average of 34% of the English they knew from the media. This is a high number, and it is possible it would have been even higher if the same study had been conducted again today. I suggest this because the rapid development of Internet technology has opened up to even more possibilities for various types of input, as well as for communication, in the time between Bonnet's study and mine.

In my study, figures Figure 5.8 and Figure 5.9 show that there is a great amount of exposure to English in the participants' everyday lives. Music, TV, and the Internet are major sources of input. The great majority hears English on TV and in music every day. The Internet is the main source of written input, as seen in Figure 5.10. These media also allow for comprehensible input in the sense that everyone can find material that interests them and is at their level. In this way, the media can create a situation similar to that of a second language learning situation in that there is a great amount of different kinds of input through the media. However, the situation is not the same of that of a language learner's in that there is normally possible to opt for native language programs on television, for instance, or native language versions of websites. Native language music is also an option, although not so much on the radio, where most pop music is in English, although the programs themselves are usually in Norwegian. In the question where the participants in my study were specifically asked how much of the TV they watched was in English and how much in Scandinavian languages, it was clear they watched more TV in English than in Scandinavian languages. The Scandinavian language market is much smaller than the English-speaking market, and so there may be fewer options to choose from. The programs are of course not the same in the different languages; one does not necessarily choose between language options, but program options. Also, as so much of what is shown on TV is in English, someone who watches TV every day like the majority of the participants, is likely to hear it.

As seen in Figure 5.7, the learners themselves think that the media is a source of learning for them. Films and TV, music and lyrics, the Internet, and computer games receive many tokens when the participants are asked in an open question if they have learned English outside school. Traveling abroad is also an important aspect, as discussed above in section 5.2.6. Traveling abroad is an important source of learning because it provides both exposure as well as opportunities to participate in natural communication.

6. Concluding Remarks

My hypothesis was that English is no longer a foreign language for Norwegian secondary school pupils. The global spread of English, as well as the spread of new technology, would mean that English would be present in the pupils' lives to a greater extent than a typical foreign language would be.

My investigation has shown that this is true to a certain degree. The pupils experience more input, and also have more opportunities for communication in English than what is typical for foreign language learners. The pupils receive much input through the media. New media also provide opportunities for communication, and so does traveling abroad.

However, English does not seem to have become a typical second language for the pupils either. The responses to the questions about English use are often mixed. Some pupils use English frequently, others use it less. It is possible that English is closer to a second language for some pupils, whereas it is closer to a foreign language for others. There are also many "in betweens", i.e., the "rather agree" or "somewhat disagree" answer categories are often the larger categories, and fewer respondents tick off the "completely agree" or "completely disagree" categories.

It is thus challenging to clearly define the status of English in Norway. As seen in section 2.2.3, Crystal (2004) claims that we might not be able to operate with the same distinctions between first, second, and foreign language in the new situation in which English finds itself. My study supports this view, because it can neither define English as a typical second language nor as a typical foreign language in Norway, but rather something in between.

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Appendix

Questionnaire

Spørreskjema - om engelskbruk i Norge

Det er helt frivillig å være med på denne spørreundersøkelsen. Hvis du ikke ønsker å være med, kan du når som helst trekke deg. Etter at du har levert den inn er det ikke mulig å trekke seg, da undersøkelsene er anonyme og jeg ikke kan finne frem til din igjen. Vennligst svar på alle spørsmålene for at undersøkelsen skal kunne brukes.
Elever som ikke har fylt 15 år trenger godkjennelse fra foresatte for å svare på undersøkelsen.

Sett kryss ved det som passer.

1. Bakgrunn
a)Alder: 14( ) 15( ) 16( ) 17 eller eldre( )

b)Kjønn: Jente( ) Gutt( )

c)Hvilke(t) språk snakker du vanligvis hjemme? (sett ett eller flere kryss)
Norsk( ) Engelsk( ) Annet( )

2. Internett
a)Har du internett du kan bruke på fritiden?
Ja, hjemme og på skolen( ) Bare hjemme( ) Bare på skolen( ) Nei( )

b)Hvor ofte bruker du vanligvis internett?
Hver dag( ) 4-6 dager i uka( ) 1-3 dager i uka( ) 1-3 dager i måneden( )
Sjeldnere/aldri( )

c)Når du bruker internett, hvor lenge bruker du det vanligvis i løpet av en dag?
1-30 minutter( ) 30 minutter-1 time( ) 1-3 timer( ) 3 timer eller mer( )

d)Bruker du noen av følgende nettsider: Facebook, Hotmail, Gmail, Msn, Myspace?
Ja, flere eller alle( ) Ja, en av dem( ) Nei, ingen av disse( )

e)Bruker du disse sidene på norsk, engelsk eller et annet språk?
Som regel på norsk( ) Som regel på engelsk( ) Som regel på et annet språk( )

f) Hvor ofte chatter du på msn, chattesider, dataspill e.l?
Hver dag( ) 4-6 dager i uka( ) 1-3 dager i uka( ) 1-3 dager i måneden( )
Sjeldnere/aldri( )

g) Chatter du noen gang på engelsk?
Ja, som regel( ) Ja, av og til( ) Nei, sjelden eller aldri( )

3. TV
a)Hvor ofte ser du på TV/ web-TV/filmer?
Hver dag( ) Flere ganger i uka( ) Flere ganger i måneden( ) Sjeldnere/aldri( )

b)Hvor mye av dette er norske eller skandinaviske programmer/filmer?
0-20%( ) 20-40%( ) 40-70%( ) 70-100%( )

c)Hvor mye av dette er engelskspråklige programmer?
0-20%( ) 20-40%( ) 40-70%( ) 70-100%( )

d)Når du ser på engelskspråklig TV/film, hvor ofte ser du på det med undertekster?
0-20%( ) 20-40%( ) 40-70%( ) 70-100%( )

4. Andre media
a) Hvor ofte leser du på engelsk?
Bøker eller blader:
Hver dag( ) Hver uke( ) Hver måned( ) Hvert år( ) Sjeldnere/aldri( )

På nett (eks. blogger, artikler, bruksanvisninger, e-post):
Hver dag( ) Hver uke( ) Hver måned( ) Hvert år( ) Sjeldnere/aldri( )

Annet, spesifiser: ……..
Hver dag( ) Hver uke( ) Hver måned( ) Hvert år( ) Sjeldnere/aldri( )

b)Hvor ofte hører du engelsk?
Musikk / radio:
Hver dag( ) Hver uke( ) Hver måned( ) Hvert år( ) Sjeldnere/aldri( )

På nett (eks. youtube, spill):
Hver dag( ) Hver uke( ) Hver måned( ) Hvert år( ) Sjeldnere/aldri( )

Annet, spesifiser: ……
Hver dag( ) Hver uke( ) Hver måned( ) Hvert år( ) Sjeldnere/aldri( )

5. Hvor enig er du i følgende utsagn?
a)Jeg hører/leser mye engelsk på fritiden (radio, tv, musikk, data, bøker, blader etc.)
Helt enig( ) Ganske enig( ) Litt uenig( ) Helt uenig( )

b)Jeg snakker/skriver mye engelsk på fritiden
Helt enig( ) Ganske enig( ) Litt uenig( ) Helt uenig( )

c)Jeg blander ofte (daglig) inn engelske ord og uttrykk når jeg snakker norsk (eller annet språk som du bruker til daglig)
Helt enig( ) Ganske enig( ) Litt uenig( ) Helt uenig( )

d)Jeg synes det er lett å snakke engelsk når jeg er i utlandet
Helt enig( ) Ganske enig( ) Litt uenig( ) Helt uenig( )

e)Jeg synes det er like lett å snakke engelsk med folk som har det som morsmål, som med andre som ikke har det som morsmål
Helt enig( ) Ganske enig( ) Litt uenig( ) Helt uenig( )

f)Jeg har lært mesteparten av engelsken jeg kan på skolen
Helt enig( ) Ganske enig( ) Litt uenig( ) Helt uenig( )

g)Når vi har engelsk på skolen, er det mye jeg kan fra før
Helt enig( ) Ganske enig( ) Litt uenig( ) Helt uenig( )

Hvis du føler at du har lært mye engelsk utenom skolen, hvor syns du at du har lært mest?
SVAR:……
……
……

h)Når jeg snakker engelsk, vil jeg helst høres ut som en som har det som morsmål (f.eks. som en amerikaner eller brite)
Helt enig( ) Ganske enig( ) Litt uenig( ) Helt uenig( )

i)Når jeg snakker engelsk, synes jeg det er fint om folk hører at jeg har en norsk (eller annen) aksent
Helt enig( ) Ganske enig( ) Litt uenig( ) Helt uenig( )

j)Jeg tror jeg kommer til å bli bedre og bedre i engelsk
Helt enig( ) Ganske enig( ) Litt uenig( ) Helt uenig( )

Hvis du tror du kommer til å bli bedre i engelsk enn du er nå: Hvordan tror du hovedsakelig dette kommer til å skje? For eksempel gjennom skolen, gjennom at du flytter til utlandet, eller kan du bli bedre uten å ha mer engelsk på skolen og uten å dra til utlandet?
SVAR:……
……
……

k)Jeg trenger ikke lære mer engelsk enn jeg kan nå
Helt enig( ) Ganske enig( ) Litt uenig( ) Helt uenig( )

l)Jeg ønsker å lære mer engelsk enn jeg kan nå
Helt enig( ) Ganske enig( ) Litt uenig( ) Helt uenig( )

Hva synes du om dette utsagnet:
"Det å ha engelsk på skolen og å ha et annet fremmedspråk (som fransk eller tysk) er omtrent like lett eller vanskelig"
SVAR:……
……
……

6. Hva synes du?
a)Hvor viktig synes du det er for deg å kunne engelsk?
Veldig viktig( ) Ganske viktig( ) Litt viktig( ) Ikke viktig( )

b)Hva tenker du at du vil bruke engelsken din til? /Hva er de(n) viktigste grunnen(e) for deg til å kunne engelsk? (Kryss av alt som passer)
( )Reise til andre land der jeg ikke kan språket
( )Reise til USA/England/andre engelsktalende land
( )Vil studere i engelsktalende land
( )Vil studere engelsk
( )Vil studere noe jeg tror jeg trenger engelsk til
( )Kunne bruke engelske dataprogrammer og nettsider, data/tv-spill, se engelsktalende TV/filmer
( )Må kunne engelsk for å få jobber jeg vil ha (nå eller senere)
( ) Annet, spesifiser: ……..

7. Kommentar?
Har du noen kommentarer til spørreskjemaet, var det noe som var vanskelig å forstå?

Tusen takk for at du har fylt inn skjemaet! Denne undersøkelsen er helt anonym.
Undersøkelsen er en del av en masteroppgave ved Universitetet i Oslo.